DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 313 350 SP 031 713

TITLE Women & Sport. Proceedings from the Dickinson Symposium in Women's Studies (Morgantown, West Virginia, April 6-7, 1989).
INSTITUTION West Virginia Univ., Morgantown. Center for Women's Studies.
PUB DATE Apr 89
NOTE 101p.; Symposium held at the Center for Women's Studies, School of Physical Education, West Virginia University.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Competition; Lifetime Sports; Physical Fitness; *Role Conflict; *Sex Differences; *Stereotypes; Team Sports; *Womens Athletics

ABSTRACT

This report includes reprints of a series of "Fireside Chats" which were offered as a preliminary to the symposium on women and sport. The following topics are covered: (1) "Closing the Gender Gap in Skills Acquisition in Children" (Linda M. Carson); (2) "Myths and Realities on Health and Wellness in Women's Athletics" (Sherrie Springer); (3) "Transition in Sport: Pre and Post Title IX Athletic Competiton for Women at West Virginia University" (Linda K. Burdette; and others); (4) "Women and Sport" (Jacquelyn Cuneen); (5) "Women, Gender, Sport and the 1990's" (Susan L. Greendorfer); (6)"Leadership and Gender" (G. Ann Uhlir); and (7) "Credibility, Promotion and the Media" (Donna A. Lopiano). References are included. (JD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED313350

WOMEN & SPORT

PROCEEDINGS FROM THE DICKINSON SYMPOSIUM IN WOMEN'S STUDIES

April 6 and 7, 1989
Center for Women's Studies
Department of Intercollegiate Athletics
School of Physical Education
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY

Copyright, 1989

SP031713

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

J. Lucas

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE iii
By Dr. Judith G. Stitzel, Director
Center for Women's Studies
West Virginia University

REMARKS v
By Dr. Jacquelyn Cuneen and Dr. Veronica Hammersmith, Editors and Co-Chairs, Committee for the Dickinson Symposium

FIRESIDE CHAT SERIES
January 30, 1989:
Closing the Gender Gap in Skills Acquisition in Children by Dr. Linda M. Carson, Associate Professor of Physical Education and University Professor of the Year, 1987-88 1
February 27, 1989:
Myths and Realities on Health and Wellness in Women's Athletics by Sherrie Springer, AT.C., Instructor of Physical Education and Head Trainer for Women's Athletics, West Virginia University 14
March 30, 1989:
Transition in Sport: Pre and Post Title IX Athletic Competition for Women at WVU by Linda K. Burdette, Assistant Professor of Physical Education and Head Coach of Gymnastics; Tracey Thompson, Volleyball athlete; Debbie Wituski, Tennis athlete and Tammie DeAngelis, Rifle athlete. (Introduction by Coach Martha T. Thorn, WVU Women's Tennis) 18

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION WEEK
April 5, 1989:
Women & Sport by Dr. Jacquelyn Cuneen, Department of General Program, School of Physical Education 29

THE JOANNE AND CHARLES DICKINSON SYMPOSIUM
April 6, 1989:
Women, Gender, Sport and the 1990's by Dr. Susan L. Greendorfer, Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign 39
April 7, 1989:
Leadership and Gender by Dr. G. Ann Uhlir, Dean, College of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, Texas Women's University 70
April 7, 1989:
Credibility, Promotion and the Media: Chickens and Eggs in Women's Athletics by Dr. Donna A. Lopiano, Director of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women, University of Texas at Austin 78

PREFACE

"The fitness movement in concert with the feminist movement... have conspired to bring out the athletic competitor in all of us, for health and fun as well as for medals and dollars. It's great that Mary Lou Retton, keeps up with the 'big boys,' her grin stretched across a box of Wheaties. It's even greater, though, that tens of thousands of women have found how liberating it can be to run a mile one day, push for two after a while, and enter a local race not long after that. By discovering sports, women who might once have thought of themselves as losers or victims can see themselves as every bit as much a winner as Mary Lou. That's something to cheer about."

Grace Lichenstein, "Competition in Women's Athletics, "Competition, A Feminist Taboo? Ed, Valerie Miner and Helen E. Longino. The Feminist Press: New York, 1987.

As a person whose only childhood association with sports was the requirement by her beloved nine-year-older brother that she memorize the entire 1956 Dodger team (Campanella, Gilliam, Reese, Robinson, Snyder, etc.), I've been made somewhat nervous by current analyses which suggest that women's leadership capacities may derive from earlier sports-related opportunities. I keep wanting to insist for the sake of my current self-confidence that not everyone-male or female--has to like sports and that there are other paths to competence. But I may be whistling in the dark, unwilling even yet to admit that I was deprived and knowing at some level that "not liking sports" was not a natural response but a learned one.

In any case, working on this symposium has confirmed what I had already begun to discover through a number of friends for whom athletics was a source of pleasure and growth: by focusing on women and sports, we learn much, not only about leadership, but about power and autonomy; about institutionalized sexism, its consequences and antidotes; and about women's competition and solidarity.

One of the most exciting aspects of women's studies for me, personally and intellectually, has been its interdisciplinary nature, the crossing of boundaries once thought to be uncrossable--at least without serious penalties. These boundaries, whether between disciplines or between categories of women--have divided us unnecessarily from each other and from our mutual development. This symposium is a positive and potent response to that damaging and unnecessary division. It has been wonderfully energizing working with colleagues in physical education and athletics. Perhaps, to be perfectly honest, I should say that it has been energizing to watch them work; for from the first moment when, after last year's Symposium, Veronica Hammersmith and Jacquelyn Cuneen approached me with their idea, they and their committee have been the major players, combining efficiency and energy and excitement into a winning formula.

Those of us in women's studies know how often we have had to challenge assumptions about what women are supposed to do or be able to do. These assumptions have been challenged by women in sport for a very long time and their challenge has strengthened us all. For women and men, athletes and non-athletes, coaches and scholars alike, the articles that follow, like the women who wrote them, combine practical experience, personal commitment and bold perspectives to enhance our understanding, appreciation and knowledge. We at West Virginia University are grateful to JoAnne & Charles Dickson, to the WVU Department of Intercollegiate Athletics and to the School of Physical Education for providing us with the intellectual opportunity which the Symposium provides.

Judith Stitzel
Director, Center for Women's Studies
West Virginia University
April 6, 1989

REMARKS

The Center for Women's Studies of West Virginia University made an earnest commitment to add to the awareness and knowledge base of women and sport. Toward this, the Center enriched the Joanne and Charles Dickinson Symposium in Women's Studies by sponsoring a series of preliminary lectures, "Fireside Chats," which highlighted the skills and knowledges of some talented people from the WVU School of Physical Education and Department of Intercollegiate Athletics. Their generous contributions to the Dickinson Symposium series are presented in these proceedings. For research retrieval purposes, the dates of their presentations are listed in the Table of Contents.

The School of Physical Education Majors Club planned for a celebration of National Physical Education Week to coincide with the Women & Sport Symposium. The speech presented to them at their luncheon is also included in these proceedings.

The presentations of Susan Greendorfer, Ann Uhlir and Donna Lopiano were, of course, the distinguished culmination of the Dickinson series.

With THANKS to the Committee for the Joanne and Charles Dickinson Symposium in Women's Studies:

Coach Linda Burdette
Dr. Linda Carson
Yvette Clark
Melanie Cook
Valerie King
Edward Pastilong
Dr. Judith Stitzel
Tracey Thompson
Bruce Wilmoth

And, thank you for the contributions and support of Dr. Wanda Franz; John Leard; Coach Martha Thorn; Coach Kittie Blakemore; Dr. Karen Douglas; Dr. Diane Avery Brown; Dr. William Alsop; Dr. Dallas Branch; Catherine Anderson; Cheryl Fuchs; Fred Schaus; Dr. J. William Douglas; Dr. Dana Brooks; Dr. Patricia Fehl; Donna Pecjak; Nancy Abrams; Nick Smith; Tracy Sell and Dave Hastings.

Jacquelyn Cuneen,
Veronica Hammersmith,
Proceedings Editors

CLOSING THE GENDER GAP IN SKILL ACQUISITION IN CHILDREN

Linda M. Carson
Associate Professor
West Virginia University

In the past decade we have witnessed an increase in research in the area of gender differences in many categories from leadership styles to physical differences. In the specific areas of sport, physical education, and physical activity, we have increased our understanding of adult gender differences in motor performances. This increase in new knowledge may be caused by a sustained interest in the Olympics, or because we are so sport-oriented as a society, or because of the fitness craze that has taken middle class, middle age America by storm. Much of our culture seems to revolve around recreation. Americans spent over $300 billion on leisure activities last year and that doesn't include gambling or drugs. That is more than the government spends on defense and housing!! In the decade of the eighties, books on fitness are outselling books on sex! However, the multi-billion dollar industry of recreation is experiencing a generation gap. While Mom and Dad are out jogging, their kids are home watching T.V. We have staggering statistics to show that we are witnessing the weakest and flabbiest generation of students to ever move through our public schools (Ross & Gilbert, 1985). The generation gap exists not only in participation but in research as well. While expanding our knowledge of how adults

perform, we have paid little attention to the developmental antecedents of the adult gender-related differences in performance, i.e., childhood differences. Let's examine the Skills Gender Gap in children.

First, are there gender differences in motor skill acquisition of children? Do little boys outperform little girls in gross motor skills? If your intuitive answer is yes, then you are correct and you are aware of a very common generalization about the motor performance of young children. How great are the gender differences in skill acquisition and have they been explained as a function of biology or environment or their interaction?

Refer to Graph I (appended) for the general trends in the motor performance of children. In prepubescent skill acquisition, there is a gradual increase for both sexes with boys outperforming girls. After puberty, there is a significant increase in performance for males with a plateau effect for females. Continue looking at Graph I as we answer the nature-nurture question. Does this graph represent our biological capabilities (nature) or our culturally imposed values (nurture)? [All participants received two pipe cleaners, each one representing one line on the graph. Participants should mold the pipe cleaners to form Graph I]

Biological

Let's first examine our hereditary contributions and capabilities. The physical characteristics of young boys and girls are actually quite similar with regard to body type, strength, and body composition (Malina, 1984). As children reach school age, the advanced structural maturation which has belonged to the female, gradually begins to be evident as elementary school girls begin exceeding their same age, opposite sex peers in height (Eckert, 1987). Prepubescent girls are structurally and psychologically more mature than the same age boys (Anastasi, 1981).

Re-examine Graph I. Why would prepubescent girls not perform gross motor skills more effectively than boys if they are physically and structurally accelerated? Potentially, then, girls ought to perform equally as well as boys prior to puberty. Therefore, biology or nature seems to offer little explanation for motor performance differences prior to puberty.

Because of the physiological changes that take place with the onset of puberty, there are dramatic changes in the performance capabilities of males. Because of the spectacular increase in strength and growth for adolescent boys, in any motor task for which size and strength are required, teenage boys will by nature have a biological advantage in performance when compared with adolescent girls because boys are larger and have more muscle mass (Thomas & French, 1985).

Environmental

Moving on to the nurture aspect of our nature vs. nurture explanation of performance differences, let's examine possible environmental influences contributing to the trends represented in Graph I. Greendorfer (1980) established that a child's perception of an appropriate gender role is an important potential source of environmental influence on gender differences in motor performance. Specifically, the child's family, peers, teachers, and coaches are potential sources for learning a gender role regarding motor performance.

Parents play an extremely significant part in the establishment of gender-roles in their children. Studies have reported that during pre-school years, both parents tend to emphasize the development of gross motor behavior in boys more than girls (Thomas & French, 1985). Parents reacted more negatively when boys chose to play with dolls than when girls chose rough and tumble games (Fling & Manosevitz, 1972). Greendorfer and Lewko (1978) identified fathers as a major influence on the sport involvement of boys and girls, while mothers did not appear to be a factor in sport socialization. These behaviors coupled with imposed toy preference by parents (Fagot, 1978), contribute to the development of gender differences in early childhood.

Teachers also contribute to the development of gender roles. Some of the skill-related physical fitness tests endorsed by professional organizations and administered by teachers have

influenced the expectations of teachers, parents, and children by having different test items and different norms for elementary school-age boys and girls (AAHPERD, 1976).

Test examples: Girls push-ups, bent-arm hand, limit for situps.

Game examples: A basket counts 3 points if made by a girl. Before the ball goes over the net, it must be hit once by a girl (Knoppers, 1988).

Greendorfer (1983) has pointed out that the influence of the play environment, including sex-typed activities, has implications for skill practice opportunities. If we as adults encourage little girls to play jump rope and hopscotch, or to comb Barbie Doll's hair and repetitiously change her clothes, it is no wonder that girls lag behind boys in the acquisition of gross motor skills. It also should not be surprizing that young girls display a superiority in fine motor manipulation and rhythmic footwork when compared with young boys (Eckert, 1987). Greendorfer (1983) reminds us that traditional boys games are typically complex and involve strategies and sport skills while traditional girls games are non-competitive and require waiting for a turn to perform a repetitive task. This provides little girls with very limited opportunity for practicing game and sport skills, strategy building, or team play. Fortunately, sex-typing through games has diminished in recent years, but parents and

teachers should be reminded that a play environment that funnels boys and girls into sex-typed games, promotes gross motor skill development in boys, but not in girls.

Let's now turn attention to the post puberty part of Graph I. In the biological considerations presented earlier we learned that adolescent boys have a structural and physiological advantage for performing most motor tasks when compared with adolescent girls because they are larger and have more muscle mass. Therefore, because of the hormonal changes in boys we would expect the dramatic increases in performance which are displayed in Graph I. Should we expect the plateau effect we observe for females after the onset of puberty? Theoretically, NO. All of us should be able to exhibit a gradual increase or steady improvement in motor performance at all ages at least into adulthood (Eckert, 1987).

Although we must acknowledge the importance of biological changes being closely associated with increasingly larger gender differences in adolescent skill performance, environmental factors may also play an important role. In the past, adolescent females may have been socialized out of performance improvements and participation. Our traditional gender roles do not encourage females to have high expectations for themselves with regard to skilled performance. Those who develop good skills have lingering doubts about the appropriateness of their sport participation. Thus, the second half of Graph I may reflect

social pressures. The plateau effect may be demonstrating to us that girls may be less inclined to participate in athletic activities and less motivated to perform well on motor tasks they do attempt (Thomas & French, 1985).

Let's summarize what we have learned so far to help us formulate solutions. Prior to puberty, sex "sameness" rather than sex differences ought to be expected in terms of skill acquisition and performance. Biological considerations support this expectation because very young children are strikingly similar in physical characteristics and physiques. As school-age children move through structural changes in elementary school, the female exhibits increasing structural and psychological maturation (Malina, 1984; Eckert, 1987). Therefore, prepubescent girls ought to perform equally as well as prepubescent boys in many measures of performance and fitness.

After puberty biological considerations accelerate the performance scores of adolescent boys (Malina, 1984). Gender role expectations may also enhance the performance scores of male adolescents. They are expected to participate and do well, therefore they do. Teenage girls are biologically capable of gradual improvements; however, many females plateau in motor skills performance and some even regress in performance scores. This plateau effect may be due to social pressures. Girls may be less likely to participate and less likely to be motivated to do well (Thomas & French, 1985).

Therefore (according to Graph I) prior to puberty most gender differences in motor performance are socially imposed by parents, peers, teachers and coaches. The performance scores are "nurtured." After puberty, a combination of increased environmental or social pressures, and dramatic biological differences account for the gender differences displayed on the graph. This represents a combination of nature and nurture. [Participants are now encouraged to refer to Graph II and re-design the pipe cleaners to resemble Graph II]

Solutions For Closing the Gender Gap

Graph II represent what the performance trends ought to look like or could look like if we would make a few basic changes in our preconceived notions about motor skills acquisition. The nature of the underlying motor control mechanisms do not differ by gender, therefore, it is so unfair to say that a child throws like a girl. Roberton (1982) and others assure us that the form of movement is not different between girls and boys; it is just that girls seem to lag behind boys in the development of good form. And this lag seems to be due to lack of practice opportunities and learning experiences for young girls.

We must therefore recognize that motor performance, as a product, is the outcome of the movement patterns used, or the quality of movement. This is an aspect of overall child development that should not be neglected or left to chance.

The solution to this whole dilemma is relatively simple - we need to "nurture our nature" in more appropriate ways. First we need to educate parents about the critical role they play in the formation of gender roles, particularly during early childhood. Little girls and little boys should be exposed to developmentally appropriate physical activities which will lay the foundation for efficient movement, effective body management, and a healthy, active lifestyle.

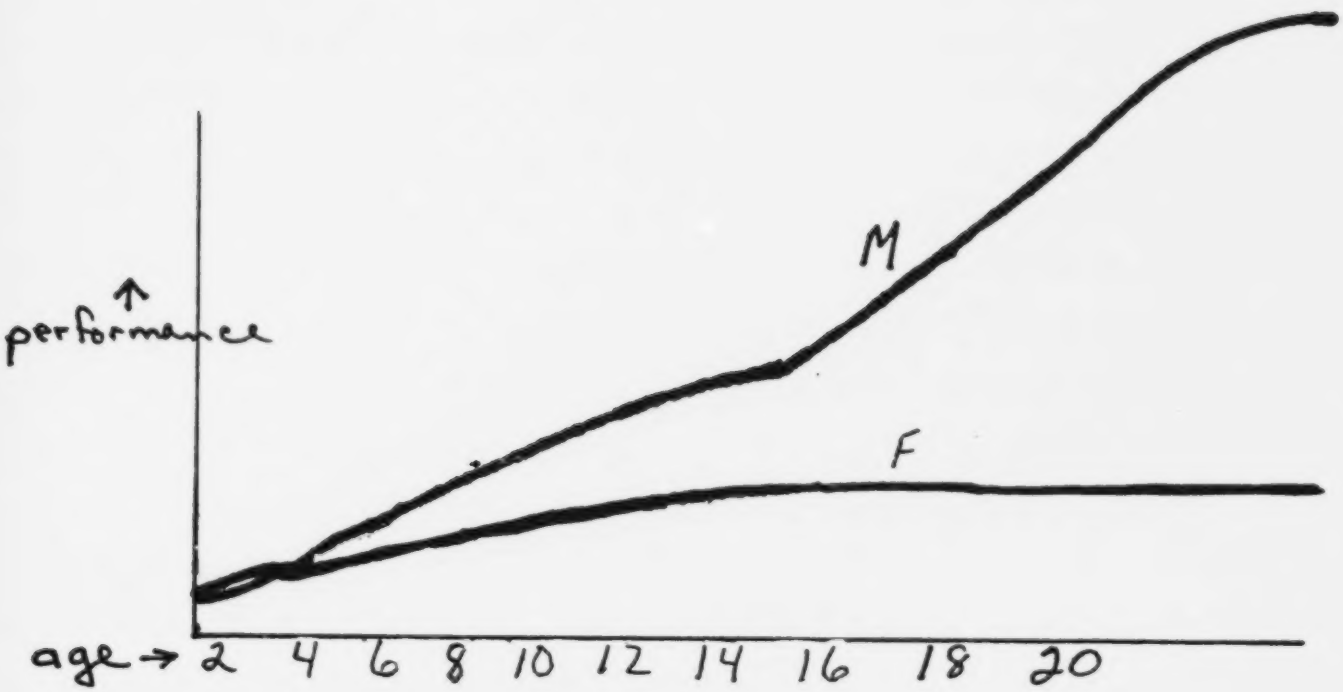
For ten years the KinderSkills Program here at WVU has promoted this type of activity experience for children ages 3-5. Parents attend the program with their child and structure learning experiences which encourage the use of efficient movement patterns, in an effort to diminish or eliminate the lag in "form" mentioned earlier. If young children of both sexes were exposed to basic motor skills in this way, whether in the home, child care facilities, or special programs like KinderSkills we would be attacking the problem before it takes hold of the child's self concept and/or goal setting behaviors possibly in a negative fashion.

For school age children, teachers and peers become equally as important as parents in gender role development. We need to educate educators about providing equity in physical education programs. Prior to puberty, gender sameness in characteristics should translate to gender sameness in instruction, practice, and learning opportunities. Parents should be encouraged to insist

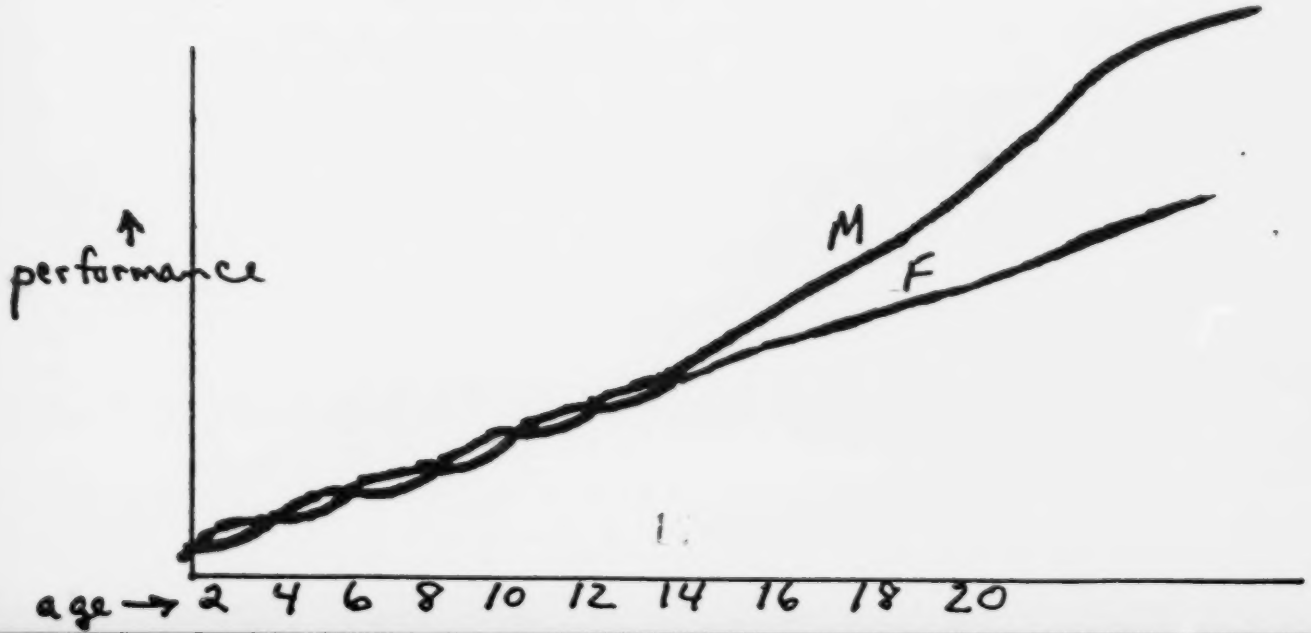
on quality and equity in instructional programs in the public schools. Mom's need to be encouraged to take the responsibility for socializing daughters into activity-oriented, healthy, life-styles. This is particularly important in the adolescent years when statistics (and Graph I) show that some girls are as fit and as skilled as they will ever be at the age of 13 or 14!

Finally, we need to identify and support child advocates who are working to close the gender gap in skill acquisition by conducting research, directing appropriate instructional programs, or disseminating information in a scholarly format. It's bad enough that Jane Fonda and Richard Simmons are the most well known advocates for adult fitness. I would hate to see Pee Wee Herman or Kermit (although I don't have anything against either one) be the "equity of skills education" advocates we so desperately need. The gender gap in skills acquisition in children can be closed. Let's all look forward to the day that throwing like a girl is a compliment because it reflects the accelerated motor development of a prepubescent female. Take your pipe cleaners home with you and keep them in the configuration of Graph II. Placed on a bulletin board or refrigerator, it will be a constant reminder of the way it <u>ought</u> to be.

Graph I



Graph II



References

Anastasi, (1981). Sex differences: Historical prospectives and methodological implications. Developmental Review, I, 187-206.

Eckert, H (1987). Motor Development. Indianapolis: Benchmark Press.

Fagot, B.I. (1978). The influence of sex of child on parental reaction to toddler children. Child Development, 49, 459-465.

Fling, S. & Manosevitz, M. (1972). Sex typing in nursery school children's play interest. Developmental Psychology, 7, 146-152.

Greendorfer, S. & Lewko, J.H. (1978). Role of family members in sport socialization of children. Research Quarterly 49, 146-152.

Greendorfer, S. (1980). Gender differences in physical activity. Motor Skills: Theory Into Practice, 4, 83-90.

Greendorfer, S. (1983). Shaping the female athlete: The impact of the family. In M.A. Boutilier & L. San Giovanni (Eds.) The Sporting Woman. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics, 135-155.

Knoppers, A. (1988). Equity for excellence in physical education. JOPHERD, August, 54-58.

Malina, R.M. (1984). Physical growth and maturation. In J.R. Thomas (Ed.) Motor development during childhood and adolescence. Minneapolis, MN: Burgess.

Roberton, M.A. (1982). Describing stages within and across motor tasks. In J.A.S. Kelso & J.E. Clark (Eds.) the development of movement control and coordination (pp. 293-307), New York: Wiley.

Ross, J.G. & Gilbert, G.C. (1985). The national children and youth fitness study: A summary of findings. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (56) 1, 45-50.

Thomas, J. & French, K. (1985). Gender differences across age in motor performance: A meta analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 98, 260-282.

"MYTHS AND REALITIES ON HEALTH AND WELLNESS IN WOMEN'S ATHLETICS"

Sherrie L. Springer, M.S., A.T.,C.
Athletic Trainer, Lecturer
West Virginia University

Introduction

I have been asked to discuss some of the more common health and wellness issues for todays "athletic woman." My perspective may be slightly different as I speak from an athletic trainer and educator's point of view. I am most familiar with the 17-23 year old athlete having worked in a coed intercollegiate setting for the past eight years, although I have also worked with a significant number of elite or olympic level athletes. There may be additional health concerns for the younger and/or older female athlete which will not be addressed in this session.

Anatomical and Physiological Differences Between Females and Males

There are a number of significant skeletal differences between females and males. One notable difference would be the gynecoid shape of the female pelvis, which is necessary for easy delivery of a child. Because of its shape, the female pelvis is wider and has a greater slanting of the femur toward the knee than the male. This may cause slightly different mechanics in the lower extremity particularly if associated with an excessive Q angle (greater than twenty degrees), hypermobile patella, or pronated feet. Females involved in running or weight bearing sport activities may show a slightly higher incidence of overuse injuries at the knee joint due to the above mentioned factors.

By comparison, the female bone is less dense than male bone. Females are often said to have a lighter body frame because if compared on an equal volume basis, the male is generally 1.25 to 1.5 times heavier than the female bone. Since women are generally also shorter they have a lower center of gravity which will be helpful in activities requiring strength and balance, such as gymnastics. In addition, females generally have shorter limbs relative to body length. In the upper extremity women as a rule have narrower shoulders with a greater sloping humerus and a marked "carrying angle" at the elbow joint. As a result the female has different upper body throwing mechanics than the male. Females may be slightly more susceptible to upper extremity injury due to weaker upper body musculature. As we see a greater emphasis placed on strength training I feel the susceptibility figures will be less or similar to trained/untrained males.

Scoliosis, a lateral curvature of the spine, is one skeletal abnormality that is much more common in females than in males. Depending on the extent and severity of the deformity, an individual's ability to perform effectively may be limited in certain sports.

There is also a marked difference in body composition of males and females. Significant changes are generally noted at maturity. Following puberty the average male is 4 - 8 inches taller and 35 - 45 pounds heavier. The percentage of body fat between the sexes is another major difference. The female physique appears more rounded and endomorphic as she has a greater concentration of fat in the subcutaneous tissue and she has a smaller proportion of muscle in relation to body weight. An 18 to 22 year old female has an average of between 22 and 26 percent body fat; a male of comparable age will have 12 - 16 percent. One major reason for this difference is related to the high androgens in the male compared to the high levels of estrogens in the female. The female will have less lean body mass (bone and muscle), less metabolically active tissue and a lower strength-to-height ratio as a result of the higher proportion of fat. Women who engage in vigorous exercise programs will typically have a lower percentage of body fat. In world class female distance runners the amount of fat has been recorded as low as 8 to 10 percent; in males this figure is closer to 4 to 8 percent. The type and intensity of exercise does play a role in body fat reduction.

One of the greatest myths or stereotypes in women's athletics, even today, is related to weight or resistance training. Many women are reluctant to seriously engage in resistance training for fear of developing unsightly musculature, and reducing motor coordination, flexibility and speed. In fact women can experience significant increase in strength, power and muscular endurance with weight training. Hypertrophy is not a natural outcome for women due to her low testosterone level. With heavy resistance training a female may notice a slight increase in muscle mass although there is typically a reduction in intramuscular fat tissue and therefore little change in girth. Using sound strength training principles a female will not loose coordination and flexibility rather she will probably enhance her athletic performance and reduce injuries. As with all athletes women should train in a manner that will be most beneficial to their specific sport.

There are also a number of anatomic differences between the male and female cardiovascular system. The female heart is smaller than the male heart and as a result women have a smaller stroke volume for an equivalent level of submaximal work. Women generally compensate by increasing the heart rate at this level of work. Other differences in women include a lower blood volume, fewer red blood cells and less hemoglobin. These factors effect a reduction in total oxygen carrying ability and result in less oxygen available at the cellular level. This effect may help to account for the females lower maximum oxygen uptake compared to the male. The thorax of the female is smaller than that of the male. Lung tissue is also reduced which results in lower vital capacity.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Nutritional Concerns

A woman involved in a vigorous exercise program has similar nutritional requirements to her male counterpart. An athletes diet should be reviewed on a regular basis to ensure that nutritional needs are being met in accordance with activity level. A well balanced diet, of adequate caloric intake, will normally provide adequate vitamin and mineral content.

The most common nutrient deficiency for the female athlete is iron deficiency. This can significantly increase her risk for iron deficiency anemia (or a lower than normal concentration of hemoglobin in the blood.) Many team physicians recommend serum ferratin testing for female athletes, in particular the distance oriented people, to measure iron stores and to determine if supplemental iron would be advisable.

Any athletes maintaining a strict vegetarian diet (eating no foods of animal origin) should be closely monitored for vitamin B12 deficiency. These individuals are excellent candidates for general nutritional counseling to ensure that all of their nutritional needs are being met. Adequate calcium intake can also be of concern particularly in the older athletic woman.

In sports where low body weight and a low percent of body fat is thought to be beneficial or advantageous an athlete (especially female) may be slightly more susceptible than the normal population to developing an eating disorder problem, most commonly anorexia nervosa and bulemia. Athletes participating in these sports should be monitored closely.

Gynecological Concerns

Menstrual irregularity and amenorrhea is slightly more common with athletic women than non athletic women. The reasons are complex and often unclear. Some factors that are thought to be linked to primary and secondary amenorrhea in the female athlete are a low level of body weight, a low percentage of body fat, physical and emotional stress affecting hormone production and inadequate nutritional intake related to demanding physical conditioning programs. Menstrual irregularity should always be evaluated by a physician.

Conclusion

Although a number of changes in our cultural attitudes have enhanced women's interest in athletic participation in recent years, probably the single most dramatic event was the adoption, in 1972, of Title IX of the Educational Ammendments Act. A review of the literature suggests that although our society has come along way in changing the attitudes and the sterotypical thinking that has plagued women's athletics, there is still room for improvement. The

benefits and opportunities for personal growth and development through participation in sport should be shared by males and females alike. We need to continue to try to educate our society to the fact that the female athlete does not trade in her sense of femininity when making a serious commitment to athletic participation. Additionally, the female athlete should be judged on her own merit rather than be compared to her male counterpart.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Albohm, M.J. (1981) HEALTH CARE FOR THE FEMALE ATHLETE. North Palm Beach, FL : The Athletic Institute.

Brooks, G. A. and T.D. Fahey. (1984) EXERCISE PHYSIOLOGY: HUMAN BIOENERGETICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS. New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Krakauer, L. J., Editor. (1985) THE YEARBOOK OF SPORTS MEDICINE. Chicago: Year Book Medical Publishers.

May, J.R. and M.J. Asken, Editors. (1987) SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY: THE PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH OF THE ATHLETE. New York: PMA Publishing Co.

Shangold, M. and G. Mirkin. (1985) THE COMPLETE SPORTS MEDICINE BOOK FOR WOMEN. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc.

Strauss, R., Editor. (1984) SPORTS MEDICINE. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company.

Walsh, W. M., Editor. (October 1984) CLINICS IN SPORTS MEDICINE: SYMPOSIUM ON THE ATHLETIC WOMAN. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co.

Transition in Sport: Pre & Post Title IX
Athletic Competition for Women at WVU

Martha Thorn:

Linda Burdette has a bachelors degree and masters degree from WVU in Physical Education. She is an Assistant Professor in the School of Physical Education and is the second coach that WVU has had for gymnastics. She has been here for fifteen years. Twice she has been selected Atlantic 10 Coach of the year. She just received that honor a few weeks ago. Her team has been to the NCAA Regional Championships since we became a member of the NCAA. Her team has broken every school record that they had this year. At one point this year, her team was ranked 14th in the country, which is quite an accomplishment.

The three members of the panel who will discuss various topics in the order of their presentations are:

Tracey Thompson is a senior on the volleyball team. Tracey has received All-Conference academic recognition for the last three years. She was chosen the 1988-89 NASPE Major of the Year, representing West Virginia University. Tracey was team captain in 1988 and holds the school career assist record and assist per game record for volleyball. Tracey has a triple major in PE/Math/Health and would like to teach and coach in the future. Tracey will address "sports and academics as well as inequities in mens and womens sports".

Debbie Wituski is a sophomore on the tennis team. Debbie plays 5th in singles and 3rd in doubles for us and as a sophomore, is one of our team leaders. Debbie, this year should certainly be an all-conference selection for Atlantic 10 academics. She had this Fall a 3.6 average and last year a perfect 4.0 average. Debbie's major is Political Science and she will be talking on "role models and support groups" she has experienced.

Tammie DeAngelis is a junior on the rifle team. She has a rather unique position as a member of a co-educational team. She is a 1987 World Cup Gold Medalist on the tree-woman air rifle team and a three time All-American for air rifle and smallbore. The rifle team won its second consecutive National Championship. Tammie has participated in the Olympic trials for 1988 and hopes to make the team in 1992. Her major is international studies and she will talk today about "attitudes toward women athletes".

I have one little story I'd like to tell about Coach Burdette. She thinks she knows alot about Title IX. She thinks she's an athlete, and she really is. When we first came to WVU a long time ago, Coach Blakemore, Coach Burdette and I formed the first old-pros intramural team and we played basketball. Needless to say, although all of us were out of our element except Coach Kittie Blakemore, we won the campus championship. Linda was such a good athlete that we would only let her in when we were 20 points ahead in the game. She was a member of the first old-pros campus championship basketball team. At 5' or 4'11", whatever she is, that's got to be a school record.

Linda Burdette:

She forgot to tell you they told me: don't shoot the ball, don't touch the ball, and don't go near the ball. They just let me out there while somebody else was resting. What I'm going to do is introduce just a little bit the history of womens sports at WVU. We have had a program here for fifteen years. The development of women's programs at WVU parallel the development of Title IX. Some of you may have heard of Title IX and don't know exactly what it is. It was a federal law passed by congress and signed by the president in 1972. It was a policy based on total education, not just on athletics. It covered all areas of education, admission policies, health benefits, and educational programs. Athletics was only one of nine areas covered in Title IX. Basically what the rule states is: "no person in the United States shall be on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance". So then, when that law came into being, many universities established programs and those that had programs, made some commitments to the women in those programs in the area of Title IX, in the way of scholarships, funding for travel, equipment, supplies, practice, etc.

West Virginia started in 1973 with three sports. Today, we have increased that number. I think that over the years there has been a lot of growth. This growth has provided many things for women in sport. It has provided role models, which is what we are going to talk about today. When I was in sport, when I was younger, I had role models but many of these were not coaches because we did not have the opportunity to have intercollegiate teams or high school teams.

Usually these were, in gymnastics, private clubs and most were male coached. In gymnastics, my only female role model was a college coach; at that time she was a sport club coach. It was not sponsored by the athletic department. Today we are trying to change that, we would like to provide more role models for young athletes so that when they go into teaching and coaching, into fields of their own, they will be able to follow in the footsteps of someone. As mentioned earlier, at the Women & Sport Symposium that will be held next week, there are three women coming that would be excellent role models for anyone in this room.

Athletics is quite an opportunity for young women. Many of us in this room, two or three I know for sure, competed in athletics, not a supported athletic program, but one where we paid the expenses, we traveled, we did everything out of our pocket. Even the first years at WVU, we bore most of the expenses and most of the opportunities we made ourselves. We have the opportunity today to provide expenses for young women where their ways are paid. They have opportunity and hopefully they have equal opportunity. There are a few things I will address at the end that I feel we need to work in the direction of and I will explain a little more on Title IX and what's happened and what's becoming of it. But I think we will let the girls speak first and possibly you'll have some questions and I'll elaborate on some of their comments at a later time.

Tracey Thompson:

It's been my experience as a volleyball player, that volleyball is a unique sport in that it is kind of like a role reversal. Volleyball is traditionally more female dominated than male dominated and that shows in all levels of play. For example, at the high school level in almost all 50 states, women have teams. However, in men's, New York state, Pennsylvania and along the West coast are the only places where you will see men competing on the high school level. When you get into the

college level, women compete on Division I,II,III, junior college, etc. As for men, there is only one division in which they compete. It's also unique because with the role reversal with women, it's often the revenue sport and there are scholarships. For us there are a lot of scholarships out there for volleyball. Whereas for men, I know some people on Penn State's men's team who are All-Americans and they are competing for partial scholarships. They have to pay a lot of their own expenses. So, volleyball for me has been more opportune. Also, on the professional level, there is a professional women's league and that's not true for the men.

In general, in looking over the inequities of men and women in sport, just speaking on the college level here at the university, my personal opinion is that it's not necessarily males vs. females, it's revenue vs. non-revenue and prioritized vs. non-prioritized sports. If you look at all the sports, there are the haves and have-nots, comparing women's volleyball to men's football, football obviously gets more money. They get more of everything. Under Title IX, we are supposed to have equal funding or comparable funding at least. That's not the case in a lot of ways. We are fortunate enough that for all athletes, the housing is equal, the trainers and the things they provide are equal. They treat everyone as athletes not as "oh, you are a football player, you're non-revenue". Things like academic tutors, they provide for all athletes which is really good. However, where we do deviate, it's with coaches. For women's volleyball, we have one full-time and one graduate assistant. There is no way you can even compare that to football, with all their people. Scholarships, we don't have as many scholarships to compete with whereas, they have their full allotment. I was trying to think of some examples where I could show inequities. The thing that comes to my mind the most is our practice and game schedule. In women's volleyball we are not allowed to schedule games at night during October and November because men's and women's basketball have priority as far as their practice times go. We are allowed to play if we want to play a game after 9:00 or 10:00 at night. If we do want to play a game then, that's fine, but if not, we are on

the road from the end of October all the way through November. This means we travel all the way up until our conference championship. As you can expect, traveling takes a lot out of a person. So, it's handicap to our team in that respect.

Tying in academics with athletics, there are pluses going along with not having as much as other sports. Perhaps because there is less pressure on the non-revenue sports, you don't have that pressure to compete on such an intense level. Knowing that three million dollars is on the line for the Fiesta Bowl would be a great amount of pressure. There is less pressure on us so you can concentrate on your academics. We don't have as intense an off-season. We don't travel to as many tournaments. We don't leave on Thursday and come back on Sunday night. We just go for maybe a weekend and that helps as far as academics because that's our semester to schedule as many classes as we want. Classes come first and we don't have to worry about going to games. Also, I've found since you are less known as an athlete, teachers treat you more equally and more fairly. I've had teachers in the past who didn't know I was an athlete until I told them. I had a math teacher tell me I couldn't take her class because I was g ng to be gone for so long and I had to drop a calculus course in the middle of the semester, which put me back four credits. I didn't appreciate that much just because I was an athlete. If she wouldn't have known that, she would have let me continue taking the course. That, I think was unfair. So, by being less known, less publicized, that does give you that little extra advantage.

The biggest thing is being a woman athlete, receiving a scholarship was the ultimate. Coming from high school I felt, "oh, this is where they're going to pay me back for my abilities." And so therefore, I can use this to better myself later in life. Whereas, a lot of male athletes tend to go in saying college is a stepping stone toward the pros. Women don't have that in the back of their minds, like, "oh, it's ok if I

flunk out or I don't have to excel in this, I can concentrate more on my sport than on academics", because, we just don't have that. Even though women's volleyball does have a professional league, it's only three years in existance and the money just isn't there, so I feel that as a woman athlete, we are not "used" as athletes. We are brought in and given a scholarship and a chance to compete, which is good.

I feel women's sports have come a long way toward being equal. I was not here pre-Title IX. We are the first generation to see the effects of Title IX and I think we've come a long way. We have a long way to go before we are totally equal as far as full allotment of money, full allotment of facilities and things like that. But, I've been fortunate to be involved with a lot of positives of sport and have reduced negatives, so I'm very fortunate in that way.

Linda Burdette:

Tracey mentioned a couple of things I'll clear up before the next speaker comes up. In Title IX, the law reads that it's equal per capita and that means in the total population of the university. If it is 60% male to 40% female, then the rates should be 60/40. So, in the athletic budget 60% of the money should be spent on the males and 40% on the females. It's not male for female. Another misconception is if there is a men's basketball team, there has to be a women's team and those two sports are treated the same. That is not the case, it has nothing to do with one sport to another sport. It's total program.

Also, in early 1974, the Tower amendment was proposed which attempted to tack onto Title IX an exemption for football and basketball, the revenue status sports. That was voted down and football is included in the head count. When President Regan took office and HEW was reorganized, the powerful punch that Title IX had lost it's impact. A couple of Supreme Court decisions in 1984 were made. Many of you know the Grove City case, a judge made the decision that Title IX was specific to programs directly receiving federal aid. Therefore, since the Grove City Athletic Department itself didn't receive federal assistance, it was exempt. This was a big blow to women's sports. So, a lot of cases were just dropped. I'm going to bring you up to date now because we have a new lease on life with the 1988 Civil Rights

Restoration Act and now there is an enforcement policy and that policy is to be enforced to the letter of the law. The courts are ruling in favor of Title IX. An example is the Temple University case that was just forced this past Summer to give an enormous amount of money to their women's program. But what they're looking at is percentages, not dollar per dollar. And, I think there's a lot of misconceptions. I think when you have 85 people on full-scholarship in football, of course that's going to sway the percentages. I think that another thing that should be clarified is, West Virginia University's position on scholarships. We have three statuses, I guess. We have men's football and basketball revenue. Then we have women's basketball and gymnastics raised to revenue status in the area of full allotment of scholarships. All the other sports, men and women, get 100% of in-state fulls. If women's volleyball is allowed twelve scholarships by the NCAA, then they are given twelve in-state-fulls. The NCAA would allow twelve out-of-state fulls. For gymnastics, I'm allowed ten fulls by the NCAA and that's what I get, ten out-of-state. So, there are different divisions here at West Virginia University. They have prioritized two of the women's sports and if there are questions about Title IX and its implications about what it means, I'll bring those up as we go along.

Debbie Wituski:

In my competitive experiences, which has lasted for over ten years, I've had the opportunity to play in a lot of different venues. I've played on the district level and I played on the state level and now I'm on the collegiate level. So, I've got to see a lot of different people from a lot of different places and how things are different between how girls play in high school and girls that play in college. I have found that one thing that has been important to me in all my experiences is the role model that I have had and the support groups. I don't think without the two of those, I would have been as strong as a success or I would have been able to accomplish as much in my athletic endeavors.

My own experiences with support groups center on my family and my coach at home. My family supported my tennis from the very first lesson I've ever taken. Their support was unique in that nobody in my family plays tennis. Nobody ever even considered playing tennis. So, when I came home one day and said, "I'm going to start playing tennis", I was getting them into something they knew nothing about. Little did they know it was going to be time-consuming and also financially-consuming. Because, as you find out as you move up the levels of any kind of competition, you have to find

An indoor facility; you have to play junior tournaments which entails traveling as fees; and you have to look right. A set of clothes was a big factor. Because of all these essentials, you had to fit in as a junior player. My parents spent a lot of money and a lot of time. So, I felt that in order to pay them back, I wanted to get a scholarship, in my own mind, just to show them that everything they had done had paid off and it was worth something. They are happy I got a scholarship, but I think they would have done it anyway because of the experiences of just competing, and just growing up, and learning a lot about yourself, having to interact with so many people. My parents were always there, unlike a lot of people who played tennis, because that's the only thing I have to judge by. Players will travel with a coach, go to six tournaments in a row with ten girls and they'll call home to say if I won or I had lost. I did not play a match until college when at least one member of my family was not there. So, I always had them there and it was a comfort to know there was always someone behind that fence rooting for me.

My second experience is unique too with my coach at home, who played tennis for four years at Purdue University before there were women's scholarships and before women's sports got any recognition at all. So, she instilled in me by my freshman year at high school that there were a lot of opportunities out there but they weren't going to come knocking on your door. You had to really make the effort if you were going to get anywhere in women's athletics. She was the one who encouraged me by my junior year to send out letters saying my academic standings and all of my athletic honors. As early as my junior year, I almost knew where I was going to school because she didn't want me to end up like her. For three years in a row, she was Indiana State Champ but her name didn't end up in the record books because the IHSA didn't sponsor the tournament. Here she was, she was three years All-State and she didn't want me to end up like her as an afterthought. By her guidelines, I realized if anybody controlled my future in athletics, it was myself. I know that my scholarship (and I had been under her teaching for six years before I received my scholarship) is a great source of pride to her but is also makes me feel good because I'm kind of indirectly rectifying the inequity that she suffered by being on scholarship when she didn't have the opportunity to do so.

Because of the support I've always had, like I said, I never played a match without my parents there, when I came to college, it was a lot different. Because I went 600 miles away, my parents couldn't be there and it was kind of strange and it was hard to accept. I had a good mother role-model here to take care of me when I came here. So, eventually I got used to them not being there. But one thing I learned, more so about participating and not having my family there per se, was that

support doesn't necessarily have to be present. I know now that even though they are in South Bend, that they are still supporting me and it works. I know they are there even though they are not, so it makes me feel a lot better.

Tammi DeAngelis:

I started shooting in 1982 competitively and like it was mentioned, it's a uniquely co-ed sport at least on the college level and on the national level in the United States. Basically this is the only country that does that. That is what makes U.S. shooters stronger on the international circuit than foreign shooters because men and women compete together especially on the collegiate level. I started shooting in a rural area, Pocomoke City, Maryland, (it's right outside Ocean City, if any of you are familiar with the area) with a 4-H program. I started off with hunter safety that was required in physical education. They said I was eligible for 4-H now that you're certified, so, I said I would give it a try. When I started out there were four women and about twenty to twenty-five guys shooting. Like I said, I'm from a rural area so that was taken as kind of strange. You get a lot of comments from rural people like, "what's a cute little thing like you doing holding a gun", sort of patronizing comments like that. But, I never really paid attention to that a whole bunch because ever since I was small, I was in sports. I would go outside and play football with the neighbors. There was nothing telling me not to do that or that you should be a lady and play this sport or you should be a guy and play this sport. So, it wasn't something I gave a lot of thought to. Even today when we compete together, I think of our situation as being competitors. I don't go out to beat the guys and in most cases they don't do out to beat me because I'm a female. It's based on who's the best shooter you're going to compete against.

Things are a little different on the international level, however. Until about 1982, men and women competed together, just like in the United States, in the Olympics or the World Championships. Whatever World Cup or international type match happened to be going on, women and men competed together. Well, in 1976, we had a woman shooter, her name was Margaret Murdock and she won a silver medal in the Olympics. This kind of disgraced a few European egos. I hope I'm not stepping on any toes here. Later in the 70's, women started picking up their scores and it became more frequent that women were shooting better and men had to work harder to compete against, not only other men but women also. Around 1982, they separated the two sports completely. Women now shoot standard rifle competition and men shoot free rifle competition. The rifles are different in that the women's rifles are not

quite as adjustable, they weigh less, just certain things like that that might have a positive effect on shooting. You know like being able to get a rifle to fit you better definitely helps out. Men are allowed to use a free rifle in their competition. It's a heavier rifle. Heavy rifles tend to make things more still. Their rifles are more adjustable and they can move around a lot more. And their course of fire is a little bit different. Women shoot half the distance men shoot but women are allowed more time proportionally than men are. So, the two events can't be compared. Like if I said, if you just doubled my score, I shot as well as so-and so. They say, well you had more time to shoot it than we did. So, they separated the two catagories in that event. And it became a little mixed up after that. But, in doing that, even though in my opinion it was sort of a sexest thing to do, it also allowed women to make a separate team. They don't have to compete against men to make the team. Now women can make a two-person Olympic team in any event and men can make a two-person Olympic team in any event. It's a different competition so, it opened up the door for many women who wouldn't cross the traditional barriers, who refused to compete against men. So, that's what happened on the international level.

Linda Burdette:

When the Civil Rights Restoration Act was passed by congress, it reestablished the original intent of Title IX. In the case of Washington State University, they were ordered to increase spending but the judge exempted football from that ruling. They appealed and the court ruled they could not exempt football. They had to divide the money. As mentioned earlier, the Temple University case, which was settled out of court, affirmed the money must be divided on a student enrollment per capita basis by males to females in the institution. That laid the ground work for increases; hopefuly, in the future.

The NCAA must be concerned because in their January issue of the NCAA News, they are sending out new guidelines for Title IX compliance and schools are to examine their programs and evaluate them in those areas. What will happen there is up for grabs. I would hope there are increases. West Virginia University has a lot of things that are positive in relation to Title IX but that does not mean we should be allowed to remain stagnant and stay at this level. There are a lot of inequities. The areas that have to be equal include: the nature and the extent of the sports, the provision of equipment and supplies, the scheduling of games and practice times, provisions of

travel and per diem allowances, nature and extent of opponents and coaches, assignments of the coaches, academic tutors, locker room and practice facilities, competition areas, medical and training, housing and dining, nature and extent of publicity. Those are areas that must be brought within compliance.

West Virginia University has a lot of pluses, but there are some negatives and I hope that we will work toward improvement in the future, so there will be some changes made.

Physical Education Week
Speech presented to the Majors Club of the West Virginia
University School of Physical Education
April 5, 1989

Women & Sport

Jacquelyn Cuneen
Department of General Program

The founders of women's colleges were especially supportive of vigorous exercise for females; they believed that women could manage college work only if academic pursuits were balanced with structured physical educational activities incorporated into curricula. Vassar College, originally a higher educational institution for women only, had initiated a physical exercise program which would serve as a model for other new women's colleges ... a popular sporting activity for Vassar girls was flower gardening.

Into the early part of the twentieth century, girls and women began to ask for a different kind of physical education and athletic structure. Programmers listened; the rules of some traditional "men's" games were modified to suit the weaker female body, more on this later, and programs were founded to serve and benefit any and all interested girls and women. The lasting elements of this new structure were "field days," play days" and "sports days." At one time, these terms were common with virtually everyone and they required no explanation but currently ... thankfully ... they need to be defined.

A field day, a play day or a sports day was a single event in which girls and women would meet at a common site for the

purpose of holding a tournament type of competition in one particular activity. For example, autumn is field hockey season. Sometime on an autumn Saturday, field hockey teams from public high schools or teams from colleges and universities would meet at a pre-determined place and compete against other schools or colleges. They had a field hockey sports day! Other seasonal sports days were held throughout the school calendar year. In winter, there were mainly two sports days: volleyball and basketball. In spring, there were three sports days; one for softball and one each for tennis and track & field. It was not uncommon that the same group of girls and women comprised the roster for each sport, each season. In other words, it was highly likely that the field hockey team from the fall sports day was also the tennis team for the spring sports day.

The organizational structure of these sports days and teams was actually quite incredible for several reasons. First, the teams were supervised by the school's girl's or women's physical education teacher. Not unusual, except that this teacher would "coach" as part of her regular teaching assignment. She (or, rarely, he) would receive no additional salary, release time, stipend or other compensation. It was just presumed that she would be willing and wanting do it. This was ordinarily true even for those who went beyond the system and set up their own unofficial "leagues" and arranged games for their teams not just on sports days but throughout the entire season. For each practice session and for each game (both held immediately after classes on a day when the men's teams would not be using the

gymnasiums or fields or courts), for each Saturday sports day, the "coach" would volunteer her time and expertise.

Formal organizations to govern women's sport, as we know them now, were non-existant. The structure was, nonetheless, quite routine. Games and contests were arranged through the supervisors' networks, the systematic tie-in units between persons with like interests and similar goals. This network, in most cases, was identical to the men's athletic conference or league. If there was any membership fee, it was inexpensive; just enough to provide for ribbons or patches for champions or to pay for the cookies and juice which were prepared for the athletes by the host school. This small fee was usually paid by a Women's Recreation Association (WRA) with money raised through dues, food sales or auctions. If a school had no WRA, the only sources of funding were the coach and the athletes themselves. Game officials or referees would be hired if networks had surplus funds. With no surplus, a volunteer from a men's varsity team might officiate but, if no one was available, a coach could also be a game official. She might even officiate her own team's game. She would call fouls, violations ... and time-out if her team was in need of direction.

Larger colleges and universities would hold genuine "try-outs," but high school athletes and athletes from smaller colleges "made the team" when they signed their name to a sheet posted on the locker room door. The only ritual which resembled a try-out at these smaller institutions was the scramble to determine on which team an athlete would be placed: the "A"

team, usually juniors and seniors and the most talented from the underclasses, or the "B" team, usually freshmen and sophomores and the "hard workers" from the upperclasses. The athletes were provided no uniform attire; adhesive taped formed the numbers on their gym-suits unless their teacher had purchased pinnies or uniforms through her physical education budget. Incredibly, they had no health screening even though they may have played as many as five or six contests in one single sports day. They might also provide their own transportation to the game sites.

Once at the site, some of the games they would play were drastically different from the games women athletes play presently. As stated earlier, games and rules had to be modified in order not to overtax the feminine constitution. The most glaring example was "Women's Basketball." A basketball team consisted of six players: three forwards and three guards. The forwards stayed on half of the basketball court with the opposing guards; crossing the center line was a violation. Only the basketball could cross the center line. With a rebound, a team had to get the ball from their defensive side to their offensive side by passing, although the rules did allow women to tax themselves to the point of taking three dribbles, if needed. Later, because women were showing great stamina in completing the passing and dribbling, rules were modified again, and two players from each team were allowed to cross center: there was one roving forward and one roving guard, ultimately called just roving players. To be a "rover" was to achieve star status in women's basketball. This was not that long ago: "experimental

rules" which allowed for five player women's basketball were initiated in the early 1970's college seasons. By that time, the National Association for Girls and Women in Sports (NAGWS), a sub-division of our then national alliance, the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation (then, only AAHPER, not AAHPERD), had added some much needed formality and educational purpose to female sport on all public school and higher institutional levels. But, still this "sports day" attitude had formed the underlying foundation of women's athletic mission for the greater portion of this century and the attitude continued to the mid-seventies.

This description of women's athletics tends to lead one toward the belief that women's preparations for and performances during competition were insignificant. In veracity, the opposite is true: there were hundreds of outstanding accomplishments made by women in sport. Only the recognition, not the quality of play, was insignificant. By personalizing this, by knowing about some of the achievements of women you know and work with, you may be able to identify better with it:

> Coach (Martha) Thorn: Our university tennis coach and physical education activity instructor. While playing basketball for Hinton High School, in our state, she scored 45 points in a single basketball game. It is not noted nor recognized anywhere in Hinton or by the West Virginia Secondary School Activities Commission.

> Coach (Kittie) Blakemore: Our "5-player" basketball coach, Associate Professor of Physical Education and Assistant Director of Athletics. Each of the four years in which she competed for James Madison University in Virginia, she lettered in field hockey, basketball and softball. Even at the smaller colleges, which still

permit an athlete to compete in more than one sport per year, we don't often find many four year-three sport letter winners.

Dr. (Linda) Carson: Associate Professor of Physical Education and a University Professor of the Year for 1987-88. She played college tennis, both singles and doubles, for Slippery Rock University in Pennsylvania. She and her partner were undefeated in four years of doubles competition. But, that is not officially recognized at "The Rock" since women's sports were essentially non-existant everywhere at the time of her achievement.

Dr. (Karen) Douglas: Assistant Professor of Health Education. During her senior year at Central State University in Oklahoma, she lettered in five sports: field hockey, volleyball, basketball, tennis and swimming. We don't know many "5-letter winners" who haven't had their jerseys retired and displayed!

Dr. (Patricia) Fehl: Chair of the Department of General Program. She was one of the "network builders" we heard about earlier. And, while at the University of Cincinnati, she coached the women's basketball team to an undefeated season. But, a team picture or a trophy do not exist to be displayed at "UC."

Dr. (Veronica) Hammersmith: Our university volleyball coach and athletics academic counselor. She does have some awards and plaques displayed on her office wall. Some indicate that she has coached her WVU team to nearly 300 victories. But an accurate account of her lifetime coaching record is unavailable since women's coaching records were, at one time, too inconsequential to keep.

Nationally, there are many more stories of inequity but a very substantial example can be found with the story of Donna de Varona. Now reknown as a sports commentator for the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) de Varona was a world class athlete at age 13 and subsequently won a place on two United

States Olympic swimming teams: as an alternate for our team at the Rome Olympics, 1960 and as an integral performer on our team which went to Tokyo in 1964. At Tokyo, as the world press gave more attention to how nice she looked in her swim-suit than to her athletic successes, de Varona was a multi-gold medalist. So was Don Schollander. But Schollander, who looked good in a swim-suit himself though the press neglected to give him credit or attention for it, was offered numerous athletic scholarships to attend college as de Varona's competitive career closed. There were no sports scholarships for females and there were no plans to have any. But, note that de Varona may have been forced to give up her swimming career but she did not abandon women's athletics; she was a founder and is a past-president and current trustee of the Women's Sports Foundation (WSF), an organization which will send a representative to our campus tomorrow in support of our School's Women & Sport Symposium.

The WSF and some very key women in sport helped to rock the underlying foundation of "sports, play and field days" and we approached the more institutionalized form of sport with which we can all identify now. With assistance initially from the NAGWS and armed with Title IX, a powerful public law forbidding discriminatory practices in education, women's innocent and informally structured programs were replaced by select programs. The Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) was established to provide leadership and standardization to member schools and women's athletics were taken to an unprecedented summit. It's purpose, it's successes and it's

unfortunate demise can be addressed with primary expertise, tomorrow, when two of the most eminent past-presidents of the AIAW, Dr. G. Ann Uhlir and Dr. Donna Lopiano, will be on our campus to speak to us through our symposium.

The primary attraction of this year's Dickinson Symposium is the prominence of the speakers. Women's athletic mission has undergone dramatic changes in the past 15 years. The speakers whom our school is helping to bring to our campus have been at the forefront of, or have actually precipitated those very changes. Uhlir was an industrious administrator and with some of her contributions and direction, the AIAW grew to establish new power and a type of control that was needed in women's competition. She is a premier historian on the subject of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) maneuver to undercut the women's organization and her description of the "take-over" is uniquely described in one of the most frequently quoted articles on women and sport: The wolf is our shepherd: shall we not fear? (Phi Delta Kappan, November, 1982). The subsequent replacement of women as decision makers in the "power positions" of athletics is traced in Uhlir's Athletics and the university: the post-women's era (Academe, July-August, 1987). Currently, Uhlir is developing a model of female leadership. Her model, the most recently recognized work on women in leadership roles (having been published in the current Academe), will be presented on our campus, by Uhlir herself, on Friday morning.

The changes in women's sport have, of course, most dramatically affected the athletes themselves. Dr. Susan Greendorfer, one of the most prolific social psychologists in the country, has focused a great deal of her past work in the area of the socialization of the female athlete. Her examinations of the agents which influence sport participation by girls and women have influenced an uncountable number of other social researchers. Greendorfer's most recent work has moved toward assessing possible changes in women athletes as a result of women's athletics program expansion. From the historical perspective presented earlier, you can determine that the mission of pre-Title IX women's athletics was most assuredly different than our present purpose. Greendorfer will address the effect that these changes have had by comparing pre/post Title IX athletes in terms of devotion/committment levels, the importance of sport in their value systems and their different identifications with sport. She is a valued expert on how philosophical and structural changes in women's intercollegiate athletics have influenced the women's sport experience. She will speak to this to open our symposium tomorrow evening.

Early in the tenure of Title IX, women's athletics directors were in search of ways to assess then document possible violations of the law. In May, 1976, our journal, the JOPERD, published an article which outlined the precise steps one need take to construct a self-evaluation model for Title IX compliance within athletics departments. This single document, authored by Donna Lopiano, enabled a multitude of women's

coaches and athletics directors to fortify their programs through a concise, data-based report which allowed for women's and men's programs to be compared on each of the Title IX provisions. Armed with specific facts and figures, many women's coaches and athletes then received equal access to facilities, comparable or equal scheduling and equipment, STIPENDS, SALARIES AND BENEFITS! Lopiano, as the Director of Intercollegate Athletics for Women at the University of Texas at Austin, has built one of the most respected and emulated athletics programs in the nation. Her most recent focus has been to build a credibility base for public acceptance and interest in all of women's collegiate athletics. The NCAA women's basketball play-offs and championship contests were seen on national network and cable television due in very large part to her promotion, marketing and negotiation skills. Lopiano will speak on promoting and marketing women's athletics on Friday morning.

The stature and prominence of any of these women are such that, traditionally, one needs to attend a national convention to hear any of them individually. To have Susan Greendorfer, Ann Uhlir and Donna Lopiano all together in one place, and to have our School of Physical Education be part of it with the Center for Women's Studies and the Department of Intercollegiate Athletics, presents, for us, an outstanding accomplishment. And, it's an unconditional guarantee that no other School or College of Physical Education in the country has come up with such a spectacular grand finale to their celebration of National Physical Education Week!

WOMEN, GENDER, SPORT AND THE 1990s

Women's intercollegiate sport programs of today stand in sharp contrast to programs which existed a short 15 years ago. Yet, despite this change and the exponential growth in such areas as budget allocation, availability of athletic scholarships, recruitment of prospective athletes, participation rates, program offerings, post-season championships, spectatorship and media interest (Barfield, 1980; Brocklehurst, 1978; Burke, 1980; Hogan, 1977; Sullivan, 1985; Van Dyne, 1976), we should note that the fundamental relationship between women, gender and sport remains unchanged. Although program structure and philosophy have been radically altered, particularly at the intercollegiate level, the relationship between the condition of being female, the notion of gender, and the institution of sport remains the same. In planning for the 1990s we would do well to reflect on the fact that after a decade and a half of change in program philosophy and styles, women's equality in sport particularly with respect to power and self-determination, essentially remains a myth.

The price sportswomen have paid for increased participation, recognition, and aspirations for self-fulfillment has been the loss of control. Unfortunately the myth of women's liberation in intercollegiate sport forced them to choose between the horns of

an unpalatable dilemma: maintain a separatist organizational structure which was being coopted by defection and financial instability or join a more flourishing bureaucratic, professionalized one that emphasized winning, record keeping and the celebration of male values (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

The forced "choice" led to the development of women's sport as we know it today, a form substantially different from that which existed in the early 1970s. Upon close examination, however, we should be struck by at least two ironies in this change-sameness paradox. While an increased feminist consciousness prompted political action sufficient enough to resist and legally remove barriers to women's participation in academic, occupational, social and political life -- including sport -- the institution of sport has virtually been ignored by feminist scholars as a domain worthy of serious consideration. If nothing else this neglect along with strident feminist attention on work, family, capitalism, patriarchy and sexuality unconsciously (nonconsciously) reinforces the patriarchal concept of sport as masculine (Williams, Lawrence & Rowe, 1985).

The second irony also suggests paradox. Sport and leisure have been effectively used as tools for perpetuating male hegemony and patriarchal structures for centuries (Bennett, et. al., 1987; Bryson, 1983; Hargreaves, 1982, 1987; Vertinsky, 1987). Sport and leisure have created separate spheres for gender relations, while essentially serving as a vehicle for male empowerment and the perpetuation of gender ideology (Theberge, 1987). These facts implicitly if not explicitly suggest that the changes in women's sport since the mid-

1970s represent a continuation of male hegemony rather than the transformation called for by feminists (Bennett, et. al, 1987; Birrell & Richter, 1987; Theberge, 1985).

What I am arguing, then, is that even though historical events have fundamentally altered the philosophy and structure of women's intercollegiate sport there has been no transformation whatsoever in the fundamental gendered relationship that exists between women and sport. With respect to the former shifts, I would identify three major movements which individually would have provided sufficient stimulus for change but collectively have had such an impact on women's intercollegiate sport that our very definitions of change and history have been challenged without apparently altering underlying ideology: a) the women's movement of the 1960s and 1970s that brought about a demand for equality for women; b) Title IX, a legislative mandate that women be provided the same opportunities as men to participate in intercollegiate sport programs; and c) the change in governance of women's intercollegiate sport programs to the National Collegiate Athletic Association. This latter movement in the early 1980s represented a shift from the espoused educational or process-oriented model of athletics which guided women's programs under the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) to a more business-like and bureaucratic sport structure which clearly reflects professionalism, commercialism and an overriding emphasis on winning (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983; Hult, 1976; Lopiano, 1984).

There is no question that Title IX provided much need increases

in sporting opportunities for women in a variety of dimensions; moreover, it represented a national attempt to eliminate the discrepancies in the treatment of males and females in competitive sport (See Note 1). Underlying the interpretation of Title IX, however, was the assumption that in order for women to have equal opportunity in intercollegiate sport, they had to be given the same opportunities as their male counterparts (LaNoue, 1976; Ley, 1974). Consequently, the sporting model advocated by female leaders of the AIAW, along with its underlying value structure, rapidly gave way to the male-defined model of intercollegiate sport.

While the events surrounding this transition are clearly documented, along with detailed discussions relative to the resultant structural and philosophical changes, implications of such rapid and drastic changes have rarely been examined with respect to the female athlete. We know very little as to how these changes may have altered or influenced her sport experience. Noteworthy in this relationship is the paradox of liberation and constraint - liberation reflected by a freedom to aspire, achieve and seek fulfillment; constraint in that such aspirations and achievements are permissible only in a male context, philosophy and organizational structure.

With respect to this issue the remainder of this paper examines this paradox by focusing on some trends that we have discovered in some of our research findings. I would like to draw specific attention to the relationship between structural characteristics of sport programs and the perceptions and reactions that female athletes seem to have relative to their intercollegiate sport experience.

Perhaps by using the information from athletes of the 1970s and 1980s who experienced this historical change we will be able to gain insight into what lies ahead in the 1990s. By means of introduction into these studies, I should mention that although the research itself did not take a feminist perspective -- in fact it originally emanated from a logical positivist perspective steeped in a tradition of empiricism -- I do believe this research has been informed by a feminist consciousness and sensitivity.

This examination of transition and change began through some serendipitous findings obtained from a study on intercollegiate sport retirement (Kleiber & Greendorfer, 1983; Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985). In the process of analyzing our data a peculiar and totally unexpected pattern emerged. For some reason, a substantial proportion (at least 40%) of the female athletes indicated that they had ended their college sport careers prematurely by voluntarily dropping out. More puzzling, however, was the fact that these "dropouts" were significantly more likely to be involved in sport after graduation than were those athletes who completed their eligibility. Labeled as "transitional" athletes because they completed their eligibility between 1975 and 1981, their participation occurred between the passage of Title IX and the NCAA takeover of women's intercollegiate sport.

Since we didn't expect the emergence of these two types of intercollegiate athlete, we had no information to help us explain either the temporary withdrawal between the freshman and senior years of college or the continued involvement following graduation. Until

their freshman year in college, these two groups were virtually identical in involvement patterns and sport socialization influences. Yet, during their college years they differed in three sport-related dimensions: devotion and commitment to sport, importance of sport, and identification with sport. Following college graduation, however, these differences disappeared. These findings piqued our curiosity, and we did a follow-up study.

Before going into the second study, however, some additional trends from the first study are worth mentioning. Classifying these athletes as pre- and post-Title IX, Blinde (1986) found some specific differences between the two groups. Pre-Title IX athletes had a less focused orientation toward their intercollegiate sport experience and a more positive orientation to sport once their intercollegiate sport career ended. In addition the orientations of the post-Title IX athletes were more similar to a sample of male athletes than they were to the pre-Title IX athletes. Thus, we began to notice significant differences between athletes relative to their orientations and reactions toward their intercollegiate sport experience -- and these differences were associated with the time period of participation.

This finding was supported in our follow-up study (Blinde & Greendorfer, 1987), which attempted to analyze the role that sport played in the lives of female athletes who competed in the 1970s vs those who competed in the 1980s. We found that athletes of the 1980s were more likely to participate in sport for competition and skill comparisons as well as for extrinsic reasons (i.e., awards,

recognition, scholarships), while athletes of the 1970s participated for social reasons. The two groups also differed in perceived outcomes and general reactions to their intercollegiate sport experience. Athletes of the 1980s were more likely to indicate that sport participation inhibited their personal and social development, forced them to sacrifice friendships and social life, and forced them to sacrifice activities other than sport.

In a third study, instead of using time period of participation as a frame of reference, Blinde (1987) suggested an alternative factor: degree of emulation of a male or product-oriented sport model. Essentially, Blinde found that the greater degree women's sport programs emulated a male model the more likely female athletes experience or express feelings of alienation and exploitation. Programs most exploitive and alienating were those that emphasized values that were bureaucratic, impersonal, authoritarian, and dominating in nature. She concluded that the value climate of the male model of sport may not have been consistent with the lived experience of females.

More recently we attempted to replicate Blinde's dissertation (Greendorfer & Blinde, 1988a; 1988b) by looking at current athletes in two contrasting structures — Division I (representative of bureaucratic, highly competitive programs that award athletic scholarships, heavily recruit athletes, conduct rigorous practice and training regimens for athletes and operate from a product-oriented program in that their emphasis is on team outcomes and records) and Division III (representative of programs who award few or no athletic

scholarships, have limited recruitment and operate from a process or educational orientation in that greater emphasis is placed on participation than outcome). Whereas Division I might be considered a male model, Division III would be viewed as the type of program similar in philosophy and structure of women's sport in the early 1970s. Differences between Division I and Division III tend to parallel those differences we found in previous studies; namely, Division I athletes were more similar to post-Title IX, athletes of the 1980s, and athletes in programs that emulated a male model, while Division III athletes were more similar to pre-Title IX, athletes of the 1970s, and athletes in programs which had low emulation of a male sport model.

We found that perceptions and experiences of these athletes differed in several dimensions, reflecting contrasting orientations. For example, compared to Division III, Division I athletes were more likely to select a university based on sport related reasons. This emphasis on athletics continued through their intercollegiate experiences, as Division I athletes were more likely to be committed to the role of athlete rather than student, while Division III athletes were more likely to indicate greater commitment to the role of student. As a point of interest Division I athletes were much more likely to indicate that in comparison to the student role, the athlete role was more rewarding.

These athletes also perceived their programs to be emphasizing different goals and priorities. Perhaps because of the different goals and priorities, Division I and Division III athletes differed

on reasons for sport participation. Most notable among these differences was the fact that athletes in Division I were more likely to indicate they participated for extrinsic rewards (such as gaining recognition and honors, increasing career chances, gaining prestige and attention, getting an athletic scholarship, and for skill comparisons or competitive reasons such as beating others, comparing skills, winning and gaining success). In contrast those in Division III were more likely to say they participated to be with others interested in sport, for the sheer enjoyment of the activity, and to improve fitness, skill or general physical condition.

In their reactions to their sport experience Division I athletes were more likely to indicate that their program placed pressure on them; they felt exploited as an athlete and felt that their services were of greater value to the team or sport program than to themselves. In contrast Division III athletes were more likely to feel that their sport participation was fun and that sport policies were designed for their best interest as students.

One finding of particular interest is that Division I athletes were more likely to describe their experience and programs as educational and self-actualizing. Perhaps being exposed to values which reflect societal expectations of occupational, economic and social success makes Division I athletes feel that their intercollegiate sport experience is better preparing them for life. If so, we suggest that this perspective reflects a more professionalized orientation from a male standard and male definitions of success.

Our findings also suggest that sport participation in Division I may have had interfered with domains of their life outside of sport. Specifically, these athletes were more likely to indicate that sport participation forced them to sacrifice friendships and social life, conflict with time to spend in other activities, and inhibit their social development. Despite such suggested adverse effects, however, Division I athletes were more likely to perceive skills learned in sport to be of value both during and after college.

Although each study focused on separate issues, examined different samples from different time periods, and used different data collection techniques, there is an underlying consistency in response patterns: athletes sharing similar experiences participated in similarly structured sport programs. As previously indicated, pre-Title IX, athletes of the 1970s, athletes in programs of low degree of male model emulation, and current Division III athletes were similar in their perceptions of, reactions to, and orientations to intercollegiate sport. Similar responses were also found for post-Title IX, athletes of the 1980s, athletes in programs of high degree of male model emulation, and current Division I athletes.

Relative to the original issue — how philosophical and structural changes in women's intercollegiate sport programs may have altered or influenced her sport experience -- the evidence suggests that the nature and orientation of the female athlete's experience seems to have changed as well. What this evidence has not told us, however, is whether this change has been liberation or constraint. To shed some light on this issue I'd like to discuss some overall

themes from interviews we have from several athletes who were most affected by the structural and philosophical changes -- athletes in Division I. Before beginning this examination, however, I should acknowledge that themes considered "liberating" have not been fully developed, the reason being that the most pervasive theme throughout the data seemed to be presence of conflict. Although the data suggest that conflict was manifested in several ways, only those which most clearly suggest constraint will be discussed here.

Value Alienation

The first type of conflict that emerged reflected a a discrepancy between the values of the sport program and the personal values of the athletes. This type of conflict, called value alienation, represented a particular kind of relationship between the athlete and the intercollegiate sport structure; namely the degree to which the athlete was comfortable with values stressed in her sport program, the degree to which she was asked to do things that conflicted with her personal system of values, the degree to which values stressed in sport were consistent with values stressed in other aspects of her life, and the degree to which she felt alienated from her sport experience (Blinde, 1989).

Although responses did suggest the presence of value alienation, we can't say with certainty why or how it emerged. However, we can offer a few alternative explanations.

Beginning with a Marxist conception of alienation as self-estrangement, the notion of "detached self" might be an appropriate application. The "detached self" refers to the disjunction between

activity and affect. In other words, individuals engage in activities that are not rewarding in themselves, resulting in alienated labor (Seeman, 1983). Alienated labor is only a means for satisfying other needs. Aspects of organizational structure have been identified with some distinct forms of alienation, and studies have demonstrated that alienation is more likely to be found in highly centralized and highly formalized organizations (Aiken & Hage, 1966). Certainly, no one would deny the fact that product-oriented intercollegiate athletic programs characterized by Division I would fit such an organizational type. Within such a structure, two possible factors may give rise to alienated labor: a) either the athlete's degree of independent control over her sport participation decreases, or b) an activity once rewarding becomes less rewarding as extrinsically motivating factors enter the picture. In either case, sport becomes labor and there is a detachment between the means and ends.

Such an interpretation is supported by some of the interviews in which several athletes described their relationship to their sport as an "obligation" to the athletic program. Because they were on scholarship they felt that they "owed time" to their sport because they were getting "paid." Rather than viewing their time commitment to sport as a conflict with their academic pressures, some indicated that the scholarship created a "contractual arrangement," and they described sport as a job. In one case an athlete went so far with the analogy to state that she felt the scholarship had taken the fun

out of playing during the season and that the sport was much more enjoyable after the season was over.

A second explanation for value alienation utilizes a social learning framework, and this offers two alternatives. The first is related to gender role socialization. That is, the condition of being female exposes individuals to different orientations, predispositions, knowledges, values and ways of interpreting or relating to social structure. As such, perceptions and orientations to social reality would not only be different but could actually conflict with the dominant value system, ethos and ideology of intercollegiate sport.

The second yet perhaps related social learning explanation relates specifically to previous sport experiences. Although sport has played an important role in athletes' lives prior to college, the intercollegiate professionalized structure may place excessive demands relative to time, energy and commitment. As such, despite their involvement in and enjoyment of sport since early childhood, females may be naively unaware of the philosophy accompanying the product-oriented, impersonal, bureaucratic structure of college sport until they enter such programs. Thus, values espoused by this institutionalized system may run counter to their expectations and previous sport experiences. As a consequence, college sport may represent a rather rude and unexpected awakening. This explanation is supported by a recent study of male athletes in which Adler and Adler (1987) found that most athletes enter college with an initial idealism based on an inaccurate picture of academic, athletic and

social life in college. Within their first year they often encounter various sets of difficulties or disillusionments particularly with reference to the priority and importance given to sport. Although told that academics were also a priority, the athletes soon discovered that values and objectives espoused during recruitment were not consistent with the conduct of their college sport program. They soon realized that unlike high school, college sport was big business, involved considerable amounts of money and increased pressure (Adler & Adler, 1985).

A third explanation accounting for value alienation draws from a feminist framework. Essentially, several feminist scholars hold that traditional values and institutional structures in American society, including that of sport, have been created and shaped by men without regard for the existence or experiences of women. Not only have such values and structures been defined in male relevant terms and experiences, but more importantly, these same terms and experiences have been used to characterize and define experiences of women as well. Specific to sport, implementation of Title IX has forced females to participate in a sport system which celebrates and rewards male values while at the same time suppresses the emergence of female values. As such, then, that which is uniquely female would be de-emphasized, suppressed, and not rewarded in the male defined and male dominated sport structure, resulting in their alienation (Boutilier & SanGiovanni, 1983). Such a situation has led several feminists to call for a redefinition of sport that focuses upon women's experiences and values (Birrell & Richter, 1987).

Role Strain

In contrast to the different types of conflicts athletes might experience with respect to value structure, athletes may also experience conflict within the role itself. This type of conflict we identified is most appropriately labeled role strain — the difficulties experienced when a role occupant attempts to meet the varied expectations and demands that others place on that role. With respect to this type of conflict, it appears that athletes perceive coaches, trainers, professors, teammates, and possibly family, to exert conflicting demands upon them. We found two types of conflict that contribute to role strain: a) mixed messages or inconsistencies from a single role set member (e.g., coach), and b) inconsistencies or conflicting messages from two different role set members (e.g., coach vs trainer).

Of the several types of inconsistencies indicated by the athletes, the most obvious role set member creating conditions for role strain was the coach. One of the more common types of mixed message occurs when coaches communicate one message, yet behave in a fashion contrary to that message. Such inconsistency was reflected in mixed messages about the priority of academics. Despite the fact that academics were verbally stressed as a top priority during the recruitment process and at the present time, the predominant message perceived by athletes was that sport really comes first. Evidence of the strain caused by such inconsistency became clear when athletes described the strict and inflexible practice and training schedule imposed by coaches. Athletes would be penalized if they were either

late or missed practice, even in situations when an examination, laboratory or job interview was held. Their perception was that nothing was to impinge on practice for whatever reason. Several athletes interpreted this message to be a reflection of the coach's "win at all cost" philosophy, despite the fact the coach would verbally express quite a different message about the importance of winning.

Athletes also mentioned inconsistencies in coaching behavior relative to: a) imposition of rules and discipline, b) differential treatment of scholarship and nonscholarship athletes, c) discrepancies between making and fulfilling promises relative to athlete status on the team, and d) regard for athletes' autonomy and independence. With respect to these issues, several athletes indicated that rules were arbitrarily enforced, that coaches not only had favorites but also favored scholarship athletes, that recruitment promises relative to playing potential or being a starter were not kept, and that although told they were adults they were not treated as such.

In contrast to role strain caused by mixed messages from a single role set member, a second type involved conflicting and competing messages from <u>various role set members</u>. The most common example cited was the conflicting messages between professors and coaches. It seems that athletes experience pressures from professors which directly or indirectly force them to choose between the importance of school and the importance of sport. Obviously, the

priorities of professors and coaches differed, and the awkwardness of this position was described quite articulately by some athletes. Their perceived role strain was expressed through their attempts to satisfy the expectations of both role set members.

Another example of differing messages from different role set members occurred when athletes attempted to deal with competing messages from trainers and coaches. In more than one instance athletes indicated that training techniques and philosophy differed between these two role set members. From their descriptions it was implied that one of these two role set members could be utilizing improper or inappropriate techniques that could lead to injury or impede recovery from injury. Again, athletes felt caught in the middle, and their remarks suggested that considerable disagreement occurred between coach and trainer regarding the playing status of an athlete.

A third type of role strain perceived is that created by the coach between team members. This type of strain involves some rather complex aspects of group dynamics. Athletes try to balance social or interpersonal friendships with task or team interactions, whereas the coach focuses on task structure and task relationships to create competition among team members. What makes this type of strain interesting is the athletes' perception that such strain is primarily created by coaching inconsistency and imposition. According to the athletes, inconsistencies in discipline, preferential treatment and manipulation of member status on the team are the major sources contributing to such strain.

Role Conflict

As previously described, role strain involves tensions or difficulties in meeting expectations of single or multiple role set members while occupying one role. Role conflict, however, relates to the problems a person faces while playing more than one role at a time (Coakley, 1986). Without a doubt playing multiple roles is a normal demand of social life and we all are forced to balance such roles. However, when expectations associated with any one role become too great or interfere with meeting the demands and expectations of other roles, the result is role conflict. The total constellation of roles forms a role set. And although not limited to these alone, typically, the role set for athletes encompasses an athletic role, an academic role and a social role.

Several instances of role conflict suggest that athletes were forced to sacrifice schoolwork and educational pursuits as well as social life and friendships. In addition they were more likely to feel that: a) the role of athlete was more prominent in their life than that of student, b) sport participation conflicted with other college activities, and c) they experienced conflict between the roles of athlete and student.

Although several athletes insisted that school came first, they perceived and described the kinds of pressure that arose from the dual roles of athlete and student. Furthermore, they felt that regardless of what their coach said about classes coming first, training, practice and their sport really came first. The irony is that although they recognized inconsistency in the coach, they failed

to recognize their own inconsistency. Only a few of the athletes admitted that their priority system also ranked sport as more important. Yet, it was clear from their description of their student and athlete roles that sport took priority. For example, one athlete had changed her major in order to remain on the golf team; others took lighter loads during their sport season or had decided to graduate in five years. Some admitted that their sport was really year round and that during certain periods their classes suffered.

Relative to other domains of their life, several athletes admitted that sport participation forced them to sacrifice fun, friendships, and social life, as well as conflicting with time to spend in other activities. Thus, it was clear that these athletes were not experiencing social life and interpersonal relationships in a broad-based social context. The demands of sport limited their contact with other peers to the extent that the majority of their interactions and social relationships were almost exclusively with other athletes. In fact some indicated that this unique role constellation alienated them from academic and social ties with peers not involved in sport.

Although such sacrifices would typically be viewed as role conflict, not all athletes viewed these sacrifices as a negative aspect of their sport participation. Such sentiments are indicative of those who qualified their comments with statements such as: "I didn't feel that this was a sacrifice," "the sacrifices were worth it," or according to one athlete, "If I devoted my life to volleyball I could get everything, accomplish my goals...last summer after going

to Holland I realized the 'world' that volleyball offered." Such an orientation may be a perfect example of the liberation-constraint paradox. On the one hand sport binds them to an extremely narrow social sphere that virtually excludes alternative activities and interests. On the other hand sport liberates them by providing limited experiences through actual and imaginative projections (or journeys) that would not ordinarily be available to them.

In sum, the structural demands of intercollegiate sport seem to create some difficulties in maintaining a balance between athletic, social and academic roles. Not only may there be inherent difficulties for athletes to fulfill the expectations of their academic and social roles, but, more importantly, when conflict occurs, the choice seems to be made in favor of the athletic role. Although several influences may lead to such a choice, a primary determinant could be centrality of the athletic role as a basis for defining one's identity (Adler & Adler, 1987). Research by Stryker (1968) suggests that role commitment and the degree to which evaluation in that role occurs by others may be important factors. Thus, it could be argued that sport is such a powerful role set and that athletes' identity is so shaped by the sport context that all other roles become secondary. What I'm suggesting is that because athletes are constantly identified by the role "athlete" to the exclusion of all others, they become increasingly committed to that role (Adler & Adler, 1987). With respect to evaluation, the athletic role is the one that is most heavily reinforced, rewarded, monitored, and regulated. Even athletic scholarships, which in principle are

for the purpose of supporting academic aspirations, actually reward athletic skill and obligate athletes more to athletic "labor" than to academic "labor."

Exploitation

The fourth type of conflict may cause debate as there may be disagreement over the limits or boundaries that separate role conflict from exploitation. Despite the varying degrees of role conflict, conflict does not necessarily lead to exploitation. For example, when an individual is placed in a position where choices between roles must be made, a system of priorities is usually established to resolve role conflict. However, when one role in a role set dominates, forcing an individual to reduce involvement in other roles to the point that these other roles cannot be adequately fulfilled or must simply be excluded, the result is exploitation. According to Figler (1981), exploitation occurs when athletes are deprived from or impeded from pursuing the desired benefits of their college experience. What Figler is referring to seems similar to Adler and Adler's (1987) notion of equality of exchange between athletes and their educational institution. According to the Adlers, when such an exchange is uneven, exploitation occurs. They suggest that the university exploits athletes by making excessive demands on them while failing to fulfill the educational promises made.

Given the changes in women's sport that have placed increasing emphasis on winning, team outcomes, revenue generation, and program respectability, it is not surprising that the interests and concerns of the individual athlete have frequently been sacrificed for the

benefit of the sport program or university. Although athletes are expected to commit a great deal of time and energy to sport, often at the expense of their educational or academic well being, upon completion of their athletic eligibility, female athletes have few opportunities to utilize the sport skills which they have developed. Given the altered structure of women's intercollegiate sport, sport participation no longer represents an end in itself. Similar to their male counterparts, female athletes are used to produce desirable outcomes for the program or university. Yet unlike their male counterparts they reap fewer rewards or benefits. Such sacrifices, while enhancing the position of the sport program, may represent exploitive demands on the athlete.

The patriarchal values which underlie this product-oriented model of sport seem to have handicapped women in other ways as well. Their unique value system and woman-centered sport has been sacrificed in order to conform to the male model of sport. Having suppressed such values in favor of the dominant ideology and making every effort to survive in such a sport structure, their attempts to gain an equal footing have been frustrated, as demonstrated by their second class citizenship and lack of administrative power. Under such circumstances, the potential for exploitation increases even more given the fact that women have little power in the conduct of intercollegiate sport.

The fact that post-Title IX, 1980s, product-oriented, and current Division I athletes were more likely to: a) express concern about the expectations of the sport structure in light of the limited sport

opportunities for women after their college career ends; b) view their services as more important to their team than to themselves; c) perceive their intercollegiate sport experience as inhibiting their social development; d) feel exploited as an intercollegiate athlete; e) feel that they have made choices between sport and other aspects of college life; f) indicate that the coach suggested they change their major so that they either take less rigorous courses or so that classes wouldn't conflict with their sport participation -- reflect more than the mere potential for exploitation. Exploitation is also found with respect to length of sport season. Athletes indicate that the demands on them are continuous and that sport is a "year-round job" which encompasses what are normal vacation periods for the rest of the students.

Evidence of exploitation also occurs with respect to athletes' physical well being and diet. Relative to injury, some athletes indicated they were expected to play regardless of injury, and if they were injured and could not play, the coach not only relegated them to second class status but also did not want to hear that the athlete was hurt. With respect to diet and eating habits, more than one athlete, particularly divers and gymnasts, indicated incidence of bulimia and other eating disorders -- which they felt were brought on by the coach's preoccupation with weight limits and body composition measures.

In sum, the variety in type and the range of examples cited represent exploitation in some form of sacrifice of the athlete's physical, social, psychological or academic well being for the

benefit of intercollegiate sport. Under such circumstances, it is possible that the expectations of the sport structure have surpassed the benefits that can be derived by the athlete. Consequently, the line between role conflict and exploitation seems to have been crossed.

Conclusion:

In sum, whether conflict arises from dissonance with previous socialization or contrasts between female lived experiences and male organizational structure, the multiplicity in types of conflict suggests that although post-Title IX, athletes of the 1980s, and those in Division I experience achievement, success, feelings of fulfillment in mastery and performance as never before, they also seem to be experiencing the costs. In practical terms we can ask if the organizational structure that replaced woman-centered sport is in fact liberation, in that it allowed women opportunity to athletically aspire, achieve and actualize, or is it a patriarchal imposition of even greater constraint that will lead to long term problems?

The irony is that today's female athlete is faced with a dilemma not dissimilar to that which existed in women's sport some 17 years ago. In terms of personal experience the athlete of the 1990s will continue to be confronted with opportunities to excel in the role of athlete, yet constrained in the type, manner and domains in which these opportunities can be realized. In her so-called liberation, she seems to be experiencing feelings similar to those described by Betty Friedan almost 25 years ago. Labeled the feminine mystique, the female athlete will be forced to deal with the contradiction

between material reward and satisfaction and her sub-threshhold sense of discomfort and dissatisfaction with a role and sporting opportunities that society labels as "ideal."

I do not see immediate resolution of this issue; the answer is a matter of interpretation and debate. Because the option for woman-centered sport does not seem to be eminent, nor do we have evidence of a transformation occurring in the existing sport structure, at best the female athlete of the 1990s is offered protracted negotiations between change and continuity, contradiction and ambivalence, advances and compromise. At worst she faces existence in a structure that minimizes her uniqueness and does not acknowledge or respect her lived experience. Obviously, this relationship between sport, gender, woman and the 1990s presents some very complex dynamics that are desperately in need of scholarly analysis and further understanding.

NOTES

1. Title IX, an extension of Civil Rights Legislation, was part of the Educational Amendments of 1972 which stated: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance." Although Title IX went into effect July 1, 1972, deliberations on these regulations delayed the date until July, 1975. Because regulations relating to college sport required major modifications, an additional 3-year extension was allowed for compliance. This extension permitted colleges and universities until July 21, 1978 to implement the athletic provisions. Interestingly, only 4% of the text of Title IX dealt with athletics; yet the majority of comments and cases focused on sport.

Adler, P., & Adler, P.A. (1985). From idealism to pragmatic detachment: The academic performance of college athletes. Sociology of Education, 58, 241-250.

Adler, P., & Adler, P.A. (1987). Role conflict and identity salience: College athletes and the academic role. The Social Science Journal, 24, 443-455.

Aiken, M., & Hage, J. (1966). Organizational alienation: A comparative analysis. American Sociological Review, 31, 497-507.

Barfield, V.M. (1980). Big-time college athletics for women: A medium for change. Athletic Purchasing and Facilities, 4(8), 18, 20, 22.

Bennett, R.S., Whitaker, G., Wooley Smith, N.J., & Sablove, A. (1987). Changing the rules of the game: Reflections toward a feminist analysis of sport. Women's Studies International Forum, 10, 369-379.

Birrell, S., & Richter, D. (1987). Is a diamond forever?: Feminist transformations of softball. Women's Studies International Forum, 10, 395-409.

Blinde, E.M. (1986). Contrasting orientations toward sport: Pre- and post-Title IX athletes. Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 10(1), 6-14.

Blinde, E.M. (1987). Contrasting models of sport and the intercollegiate sport experience of female athletes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana.

Blinde, E.M. (1989). Participation in a male sport model and the value alienation of female intercollegiate athletes. Sociology of Sport Journal, 6, 36-49.

Blinde, E. M., & Greendorfer, S. L. (1987). Structural and philosophical differences in women's intercollegiate sport programs and the sport experience of athletes. Journal of Sport Behavior, 10, 59-72.

Brocklehurst, N. (1978). Are sports changing? The College Board Review, 109, 14-16.

Bryson, L. (1983). Sport and the oppression of women. The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology, 19, 413-426.

Burke, P. (1980). The effect of current sports legislation on women in Canada and the USA - Title IX. In A. Popma (Ed.), The female athlete (pp. 145-152). Burnaby, British Columbia: Simon Fraser University.

Chandler, J.M. (1983, October). Title IX - Deliverance or diversion? Paper presented at the Annual Meeting at the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport, St. Louis, MO.

Coakley, J.J. (1986). Sport in society: Issues and controversies (3rd ed.). St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby.

Figler, S.K. (1981). Sport and play in American life. Philadelphia: Saunders College Publishing.

Greendorfer, S.L., & Blinde, E.M. (1985). "Retirement" from intercollegiate sport: Theoretical and empirical considerations. Sociology of Sport Journal, 2, 101-110.

Greendorfer, S.L., & Blinde, E.M. (1987, November). Structural differences and contrasting organizational models: The female intercollegiate sport experience. Paper presented at annual meeting of North American Society for Sociology of Sport, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

Greendorfer, S.L., & Blinde, E.M. (1988a, April). Alternative sport structures and the sport experience of female intercollegiate athletes. Paper presented at annual meeting of American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, Kansas City, MO.

Greendorfer, S.L., & Blinde, E.M. (1988b, May). The impact of changing structure and program philosophy on the female intercollegiate sport experience. Paper presented at the R. Tait McKenzie Symposium on the College Athlete: Issues and Concerns, A sociological Perspective. Knoxville, TN.

Hargreaves, J.A. (1982). Theorising sport: An introduction. In J. Hargreaves (Ed.), Sport, culture and ideology. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Hargreaves, J.A. (1987). Victorian familism and the formative years of female sport. In J.A. Mangan and R.J. Park (Eds.), From 'fair sex' to feminism: Sport and the socialization of women in the industrial and post-industrial eras (pp. 130-144). London: Frank Cass & Co., Ltd.

Hogan, C.L. (1977). From here to equality: Title IX. WomenSports, 4(9), 6-20, 22, 24, 26, 60.

Holland, J.R. (1978). We're not different. Association of Governing Boards Reports, 20(5), 12-14.

Hult, J. (1984, March). American sport: Two separate cultures. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, Anaheim, CA.

Kleiber, D.A., & Greendorfer, S.L. (1983, March). Social reintegration of former college athletes. Report No. 1 to the National Collegiate Athletic Association, Shawnee Mission, Kansas.

Ley, K. (1974). Women in sports: Where do we go from here, boys? Phi Delta Kappan, 56(2), 129-131.

LaNoue, G.R. (1976). Athletics and equality: How to comply with Title IX without tearing down the stadium. Change, 9(10), 27-30, 63-64.

Lopiano, D.A. (1984). A political analysis of the possibility of impact alternatives for the accomplishment of feminist objectives within American intercollegiate sport. Arena Review, 8(2), 49-61.

Malmisur, M.C. (1978). Title IX dilemma: Meritocratic and egalitarian tension. Journal of Sport Behavior, 1(3), 130-138.

Nyquist, E.B. (1979). When, women, and money: Collegiate athletics today and tomorrow. Educational Record, 60(4), 374-393.

Seeman, M. (1983). Alienation motifs in contemporary theorizing: The hidden continuity of the classic themes. Social Psychology Quarterly, 46(3), 171-184.

Stryker, S. (1968). Identity salience and role performance. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 30, 558-564.

Sullivan, R. (1985, March 4). A law that needs more muscle. Sports Illustrated, p. 9.

Van Dyne, L. (1976). Courtin' the big time AIAW basketball. WomenSports, 3(7), 26-28.

Vertinsky, P. (1987). Body shapes: The role of the medical establishment in informing female exercise and physical education in nineteenth-century North America. In J.A. Mangan and R.J. Park (Eds.), From 'fair sex' to feminism: Sport and the socialization of women in the industrial and post-industrial eras (pp. 256-281). London: Frank Cass & Co., Ltd.

Williams, C.L., Lawrence, G., & Rowe, D. (1985). Women and sport: A lost ideal. Women's Studies International Forum, 8, 639-645.

Women and Sport Symposium
West Virginia University
April 6 and 7, 1989

Leadership and Gender

G. Ann Uhlir, Dean
College of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance
Texas Woman's University

If I were to ask a child "what are the desirable qualities in adult women?" I would receive a set of descriptors that would, for the most part, be distinct from the list of qualities I would receive if I asked for the desirable qualities of adult males. And furthur, if I asked the child for the desirable qualities of adults, I would receive a list of qualities that closely match the list of descriptors of adult male. In other words, children see adults and males as synonymns while females are seen as a separate class, by children. I suspect if I were to ask you the desirable characteristics of leaders, I may have a list that looked more like the list of qualifiers associated with adults and males than the list of descriptors of females.

I also suspect, that if I asked a typical group of people to provide me with a list of the ten leaders each believed to be most effective in the world today, I would have delivered to be the names of men -- heads of government, agencies, organizations, and corporations. The concept of leader tends to cause one to think in terms of people holding positions of importance and these are, for the most part men. The proportion of women holding visible, powerful, leadership positions is infinitesimally small.

Men and women in our society are socialized from infancy to perform distinct and different, sex-typed roles. Endless studies in the sex-role stereotyping literature affirm the fact that greater social value is given to masculine than to feminine behaviors. The rigid sex-role stereotypes are harmful to both men and women. Expectations that require men to be brave, strong, fearless, aggressive when emphathy, gentleness, openness, or emotional expression are called for constrain the male leader confronted with a set of circumstances requiring mediation and negotiation. Women socialized to be passive and pretty do not perform well when aggression, power, endurance, and physical strength are the order. We place women in a sex-role dilemma when leadership expectations and sex role expectations are divergent.

When we look about us at our world, nation, communities, organizations, and families and confront the

reality that we have social and political problems that have escaped resolution by the best efforts of the past, can we, in all rationality, ignore the fact that over half of the world's population has not been utilized? For all practical purposes women have been outside the board rooms, assembly halls, and parliaments where policies have been developed, strategies discussed and decisions made.

On May 18, 1988, the New York Times offered a feature by Michael Norman on Texas Woman's University entitled, "Lessons," with the subheading, "a university run by women teaches through the way it is managed." The essence of the story was that at Texas Woman's University, the administration teaches a style of leadership by the management model it follows. Norman quotes the observation of Carol Pearson, author of an American Council on Education monograph on women, that in contrast to the hierarchical model often viewed as "dictatorial, usually aggressive, sometimes militaristic, occasionally confrontational," the female model means "standing up for principles and being assertive without looking for enemies, being gentle and respectful even of the people who are your detractors."

At Texas Woman's University, the institution that I serve, the special mission is to provide an environment where women may realize their potential, may attain intellectual goals, and may exercise leadership skills. By living, working, and studying in a university which recognizes women's contributions to society, students prepare to distinguish themselves for comparable achievements. A university modeled specifically to meet the educational needs of women and to provide role models and unique opportunities for leadership and achievement will produce women, we believe, who will excel and provide a new form of leadership and ultimately a better world.

Texas Woman's University is the largest institituion of higher education for women in the United States and the only public university for women. The presence of women in leadership roles is the norm. The president is a woman; three of the four vice presidents and eight of eleven deans are women. The directors of Admissions, Research, the Library, Career Planning, Alumnae Relations, Food Services, Housing -- all are women. In fact, the visibility of women leaders on this campus is commonplace. The practical affect of this visibility is to provide young women with role models and potential mentors throughout the university administration and to provide for students a vision of what it is possible to become.

What is so different about women and the manner in which they lead? What is the basis for believing that women will be able to resolve questions men could not? What is so distinct about men and women that leadership styles are

observed to be different? Such questions that arise out of fundamental definitions of leadership have puzzled me for years.

Alice Eagly, a Purdue psychologist, reviewed 166 separate studies on management behavior and found that women managers are more democratic while men are more autocratic; that women seek more input from subordinates, listen and negotiate. Women are raised, says Eagly, with more interpersonal skills that allow them to manage in a more democratic fashion. Her review found that women care more about people as they function in their leadership roles while men care more about the job at hand.

As far back as 1965 I recall being fascinated with the Texas Leadership Institute material that proposed the notion that each of us is a unique combination of qualities arising from the basic human struggle involved in balancing the "me" and "you" in terms of our needs. Choices we make for our "self" compared with choices we make for "others" persist throughout our lives. Rather than viewing these choices as opposites on a continuum, The Texas model placed these variables on a grid with the intent of acknowledging that individuals can possess any degree of each quality. The degree of caring for others was plotted along the horizontal axis of the grid; the degree of caring for self was plotted along the vertical axis. (transparency). An individual, therefore, could literally be anywhere on the grid - low in both caring for others and caring for self, high in one or the other, somewhere in the middle, or high in both.

Next, the model added the concept of "growth" contrasted with that of "belonging" as the second pair of variables on the grid, paralleling the "self" and "other" dimensions. The theoretical assumption presumes that individuals who seek to belong are relationship-oriented and care about others. The extreme case along the horizontal axis represents a person who seeks belonging above all else. The extreme case on the vertical axis is a person who seeks to grow and gain power and position to the exclusion of all relationship interests or group approval, even at the price of personal isolation.

When I began reading some management theory in the 1970's, I saw some parallels between the Texas Leadership model and the dichotomy of management behaviors that turned up in the literature. Several theorists proposed that managers were continuously faced with two concerns: (1) the need to complete the work of the organization; and (2) the need to be concerned with human relationships. For example, decisions had to be both correct and timely, but also required acceptance by the people affected by the decision. In other words, the leader has to focus both on the

substance of the decision (the task) but also must be concerned by those in the organization that will live with the decision (relationships). This pair of variables, "task" and "relationships", were therefore, added to my grid.(transparency) "Task" parallels "self" on the vertical axis and "relationships" alligns with "other" on the horizontal axis. Individuals with a high degree of caring for others and belonging are presumed to be concerned with relationships while people with a high degree of caring for self and for achievement are expected to focus on the task.

As I began to reflect on this model of human behavior, I asked the question, "Is there a gender relevance?" An interesting hypothesis I have proposed is that masculinity and femininity parallel the "self" and "other" variables on the grid.(transparency) To examine the relationship between leadership and gender some working definitions are in order. Leadership, from my perspective is simply the process of causing action through the orchestration of human talent. Some authorities have described this phenomenon as an art; others call it creative activity. In any case, leadership means getting something done by inspiring and inciting people to be inventive and imaginative in their work as their activities contribute to the goals of the organization. This definition focuses on ideas and ideals rather than on the tools of management.

Masculinity and feminity are perhaps best defined by using the results of the work of S.L. Bem which she did in conjunction with the process of developing the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) The BSRI is founded on the concept that the sex-typed individual is highly attuned to cultural definitions of gender-appropriate behavior. These culturally established definitions become the standards against which behaviors are judged. Bem based the BSRI on the theoretical assumptions that (1) the culture has clustered a heterogeneous collection of attributes into two mutually exclusive categories, each considered more characteristic of and more desirable for one sex or the other; and (2) individuals differ from one another in the extent to which they utilize the cultural definitions as ideal standards of feminity and masculinity against which their own personality and behavior are evaluated. The sex -typed individual attempts to conform to these culturally established definitions by selecting behaviors and attributes that enhance the image and by avoiding those that violate it. The androgynous individual is less attuned to these culturally established definitions and tends not to regulate her or his behavior in accordance with them. The androgynous person selects behaviors without regard to categories and thus may be both assertive and compassionate, masculine and feminine, instrumental and expressive, depending on the circumstances.

Masculinity and feminity, the clusters of mutually exclusive attitudes, become the basis for the formation of clearly differentiated sex roles. Those attributes considered masculine, I postulate, articulate with the self, growth and task variables; the attributes identified with femininity correlate with other, belonging, and relationships on the horizontal axis.

The androgynous person is not sex-typed and may possess varying combinations of attributes. Androgyny, then would appear in the upper right corner of the grid. The lower left position, with low "self" and low "other" would be classified as "undifferentiated."

One of the earliest contemporary management theories was proposed by McGregor in 1967 and named "Theory X and Y." According to McGregor, organizations tend to operate in one of two ways. The organizations that subscribe to Theory X assume that employees have little ambition, desire security above all, and avoid work unless driven by threats and orders. In order to manage with these assumptions, hierarchical structures are designed to maintain power over subordinates who must be directed, controlled, and disciplined. On the other hand, Theory Y assumes that employees are motivated in their work because they are committed to the goals of the organization, not because of threats of punishment. Organizations assuming Theory Y offer employees independence, flexibility, and the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect them, and open communication among executives and subordinates is stressed. Using the grid model again, Theory X aligns with "self" and Theory Y aligns with "other."(transparency) Theory X focuses on the job, while Theory Y demonstrates concern for subordinates in the organization.

Theory Z, offered in 1981 by a Japanese theorist named Ouchi, proposes a blend of task design, individual objectives, and organizational goals into a corporate culture that emphasizes human resources. Ouchi suggests that the most important asset of the organization is its employees -- they should be involved in the organization in ways that capitalize on their ideas and abilities, and they should be included in decisions that affect their welfare. In order to increase employee morale, achieve higher quality, and improve productivity, the "quality circle" concept evolved, which provides members of the work force opportunities to meet with others in the organization to discuss problems and offer suggestions that facilitate operations. Multi-level participation in decision making, job rotation, frequent performance appraisals, and slow promotion are central to the successful organization's management design, according to Ouchi.

Theory Z fits the upper-right corner of the grid, along with androgyny. Theory Z presumes that high productivity and high participation of employees in idea generation and decision making go hand in hand, that the goals of "management" and "leadership" can be combined.

Because this symposium sponsored by the Department of Women's Studies has chosen the theme "Women in Sport," I would like to focus the remainder of my remarks on the implications the preceding discussion and proposed model have for leadership of collegiate sport. The fact that women are noticeably absent the most visible administrative positions in collegiate sport requires no documentation. Declining numbers of women in leadership roles are observed throughout college sport. There are many studies that detail chapter and verse the extent to which women have been losing ground in terms of the selection processes that choose coaches, administrators, and other leaders for women's sports. And opportunities available for women to coach men in all but a few of the non-contact sports are virtually nonexistent.

As has been the case throughout organizations that are the foundation of the social order, the process of identifying able people for leadership in collegiate sport has virturally precluded the consideration of women. The credentials essential for leadership roles focus almost exclusively on task performance indicators. Individuals with high win to loss ratios, an indicator presumed to reflect a host of other task related accomplishments, are clearly preferred, despite the gender of the applicant. Measures of success are almost always quantitative. Screening committees, the members of which are products of a system that has rewarded people with high task orientation, look to see the extent to which the candidate's own collegiate record reflects distinctive performance. They look at the performances of teams the candidate played on and coached, the nature of the competition against which these records were achieved, the win-loss record of previous coaching assignments, the post collegiate performance of former athletes in professional or amateur sport, national, regional or conference rankings of teams the prospective leader of sport has been associated with, and the list continues. The point is, to be in the pile for serious consideration, assuming of course that the search is one that is open and meets all the equal employment opportunity guidelines, a person must demonstrate without a doubt high levels of task related achievements.

Now there is nothing wrong with reviewing applicants for leadership in sport who demonstrate they have the necessary abilities related to the task dimensions of the appointment. However, when we reflect upon the proposed model of leadership, recall that high task orientation (high

on the vertical axis) is only a part of the picture. In fact, when individuals seek to grow and gain power and position to the exclusion of all relationship interests even at the price of isolation, they approach their responsibilities as dictators.

Suppose that the screening process involved in the selection of sport leaders demanded prospects demonstrate both high task and high relationship leadership attitudes. What kinds of indicators might they examine? What reason is there to believe that such additional information might result in an improved selection process?

Relationship measures that might be appropriate to study in the analysis of a person's potential for leadership could include a wide variety of assessments of style, process, and manner of functioning. How has the person involved others in the process of decision making? Has she or he consulted one or two others, the entire group, none of the people in the organization in the process of decisions that affect them? Does the candidate ever defer the decision to the group? Does the candidate demonstrate as much commitment to the full growth and development of the people she or he supervises as to his or her own career? What is the coach's record on graduates among former players? What scholastic awards, honors,and achievements have been earned by those he or she has supervised. For example, has this prospective administrator encouraged coaches to apply for leadership roles in other colleges where they might have opportunities to face even greater challenge? Or has the administrator been preoccupied with keeping the high achiever for her or his own program, even though the talent for greater service exists? How much for self and how much for other is this leader of sport?

It is the premise of this leadership theory that building the people in the organization (the coaches, the players) is equally important to the performance outcomes associated with the task dimension. When these are in balance, the goals of the program can be achieved to the fullest extent. Temptations of all sorts to push the limits of the law or to look for the loopholes that provide the edge in the recruitment war or on the field are mitigated when equal commitment to the lives of people we serve exists.

Last February, two Texas Senators introduced legislation before the Texas Legislature to make it a punishable offense to illegally recruit an athlete. The need for the legislation, according to the authors, Glasgow and Laney, results from the "problems that have occurred in our universities and colleges that cause great embarassment to our schools, our alumni, and to the State of Texas." The fundamental question that arises from this action, in my

view, is "How does making illegal recruiting a crime address the problem?" I submit that the problem arises from the preoccupation with achievement, the number one syndrome, the "winning is not the most important thing, it's the only thing" attitude.

The quest for leadership for collegiate sport programs is a matter of establishing among the powers that be that athletic directors, coaches, and other sport administrators must be endowed with the combination of talents and qualities that prepare them to conduct their programs not only as they would run a business with a bottom line obligation but also an educational enterprise committed to the fullest development of human beings. When that is accomplished, the leadership selection process will factor into the review equal consideration for the relational skills and the sport expertise of each candidate.

Women have been outside the selection process that has resulted in an expansion of opportunity for men to coach and administer women for a variety of reasons. For sure, men have had the inside track because they were more likely to have personal association with the person or persons making the choice. But men have also been a better match with the job descriptions that have insisted on achievements and even, in some cases, have denigrated the relational attributes of candidates. Women, strong in caring and supportive behaviors, have at times been viewed as lacking in mental toughness or the capacity to discipline. The assumption has been, you can not be both. It is a sad commentary that recent reports are in fact suggesting that the change in attitudes of both players and coaches is resulting in women becoming more like the establishment, that is, more like their male predecessors.

Imagine somewhere along the path to the twenty first century a scenario where leadership would mean the capability of truly blending organizational goals with the best interests of human beings. Would not women and men who have shed the traditional and stereotypical behaviors associated with their socialized sex roles be best adapted to lead? Would not androgyny be the behavior of choice?

CREDIBILITY, PROMOTION AND THE MEDIA: CHICKENS AND EGGS IN WOMEN'S ATHLETICS

by
Donna A. Lopiano, Ph. D.
Director, Intercollegiate Athletics for Women
The University of Texas at Austin

Presented at The Joanne and Charles Dickinson Symposium: Women and Sport
West Virginia University - April 7, 1989

Some of my most frustrating memories in 20 years of administering women's athletics programs are the many arguments I have had with representatives of the print and electronia media on why newspapers, radio and television fail to provide adequate coverage of women's athletics events. It's the old "which comes first, the chicken or the egg" problem. I became the women's athletics director at the University of Texas in 1975. Soon thereafter I had my first conversation with a local sports editor which resulted in UT women's sports not appearing in our Austin newspaper at all for two weeks. I couldn't believe it! I simply asked him, "Why aren't you giving more coverage to women's sports?" He answered, "There is no public interest. You don't have people in the stands." I, in turn, parried with, "How do you explain the fact that boys high school basketball has less people in the stands than women's college basketball and they get more print than we do? " End of conversation -- end of coverage. Thank God he wasn't the sports editor for very long.

That two-decades-old conversation is being repeated all over the country today -- and I suspect has been repeated every day since -- in the never-ending battle between women's sports and the print and electronic media over fair news coverage. Women athletics directors know that media coverage is essential to developing public support and putting people in the bleachers as paying customers. Editors maintain that their newspapers are not promotional tools for the development of women's sports. They claim that they will cover women's sports when their readers' interest warrants coverage. Is there a bad guy lurking in the shadows? Is there some conspiracy against valuing and promoting the activities of women here in the United States? Are there legions of white male reporters and editors in the United States who are painting a reflection of their sexist views over the canvas of mass media? The answer of course is, "yes". And the answer isn't really a stunning revelation to any of us. We have known about the nature of the media for quite a long time:

- We know that whether we're talking about newspapers, magazines, books, radio, recordings, television, or film, there is a high correlation between print and electronic media's coverage of varying issues. In other words, all of the media cover the same things. (Smith, 1985).
- We know that the public is a voracious consumer of the media product and that the most popular product, the one with the largest daily audience is the newspaper. Sixty-five percent of

elementary school graduates, 90% of high school graduates, and 92% of college graduates read a newspaper every day. (Hyman, Wright, and Reed,1975) (Agee, Ault, & Emery, 1982)

- We know that most individuals will spend three times as much contact with the mass media as they spend in school (Withey, 1971)
- We also know that the impact of what the mass media says is often extended beyond the primary receiver to numerous secondary audiences so there here is a significant correlation between daily topics of conversation and the content of daily newspapers. (Black and Whitney, 1983) (Atwood, Sohn, and Sohn, 1978)
- We know that media coverage shapes public attidudes and opinion. If the media covers an issue or event, that issue or event is perceived as important by the public. There is little question that the mass media have a tremendous impact on shaping the opinions of individuals and the values of our society as a whole. Individuals not only learn from the media, they often change their attidudes and opinions based on what the media says. (Agee, Ault, and Emery , 1982) (Smith, 1985)
- In other words, we know that the media sets the public's agenda through heightened coverage of issues. Many of our views and beliefs are literally media-driven. (Smith, 1985) (Shaw and McCombs, 1977) (Funkhouser, 1975) (MacKuen and Coombs, 1981)
- We also know that editors not only select the content of the news which is included in each day's mass communication, they also provide additional information and opinions through editorials, feature stories, and selection and publication of letters to the editor. There is little question that a substantial portion of media content is persuasive in nature and that the persuaders are journalists who bring their own views and value systems with them and, through mass communication, to us. (Black & Whitney, 1983).
- Not surprisingly, we know that these journalists, while guided by readers' interests, also have a tendency to report the unusual, with the most interesting events receiving lead or front page coverage. Wattenberg was not being facetious when he related the three criteria adhered to by the media in making news judgments: "1) Bad news is big news; 2) Good news is no news; 3) Good news is bad news" (Wattenberg, 1984, p. 112). This nature of the media to report bad news invariably makes them advocates of reform because it's generally bad news that generates calls for reform and change. In addition, few would argue the contention that it is a journalist's professional obligation to identify problematic issues and then assume adversarial postures. (Ullman, 1984) (Ranney, 1984, 1983) (Hough, 1984).

And here is where the inconsistencies begin to appear which lend support to the theory that failure to cover women's sports and other women's activities are a function of sexist bias rather than an

objective determination of newsworthiness or public interest. Few would disagree that there's a lot of bad news in women's sports which is deserving of the interest of those who focus on bad news. Few would argue that sex discrimination (or race discrimination for that matter) in the provision of athletics opportunities and athletics employment is at least as "bad" as Pete Rose's gambling or Barry Switzer's failure to discipline his players. Our sports journalists appear to be blind to their own white male bias. One need only look at USA Today and their balanced coverage of men's and women's sports, sex and race discrimination in sport, Pete Rose and Barry Switzer and news in general to see what a difference it makes when the race and gender mix of the newsroom and editorial staff reflects the race and gender mix of the population they are serving.

An important point needs to be made here. The problem does not lie with too many white men in the newsroom. The problem lies in too many people in the newsroom with a white male value system which is often unconsciously racist as well as sexist.

Getting back to my first thesis, there has been a failure of the mass media to cover a good "bad news" story. We can see that the most valid media criticism is not, "if you cover women's sports, the public will come to women's games which will demonstrate public interest so you can feel good about covering women's sports". The real point is "sex discrimination in the provision of sport participation and employment opportunities is bad news that, if reported, would produce public indignation and a reform movement which would give women's athletics the financial support it needs to produce the same excellence in women's sports that produces a public interest in and media coverage of men's sports".

However, I doubt whether changing our criticism of the media will result in changing the media's choice of what is news. We have beaten our heads against the wall long enough lamenting the inability of the media to recognize the negative influence of their own bias against things important to women. The time has come for us to forsake this narrow view and concentration on placing blame. Instead, we need to focus on learning how the mass media system works and how we can become proactive in a very broad and diversified strategic sense so we can change the system into what we want it to be. I will maintain that if we learn the economic and political rules of the mass communications game, we can play it better than the journalists who are now winning the contest.

We know that the more commerically viable the sports product, the more coverage will be obtained in the mass media. The interest of the public in men's sports is no accident. When you look at both professional and collegiate men's sports, you find a tremendous investment of organizational resources in catering to the needs of the sports journalist. From press releases to elaborate color media guides to full time promoters and sports publicity and information officers to lucrative entertainment

practices in the guise of press conferences, luncheons, and media days, the men's sport establishment caters to the media, does their work for them and literally and figuratively buys coverage. (Theberge and Cronk, 1986)

The publicity and promotions mechanism of men's sport programs is inextricably tied to commercial advertising support. The same people who purchase newspaper and electronic media advertising buy sports program ads, television and radio spots on broadcast athletics events, event title sponsorships, concession rights, arena and scoreboard signage and use their association with popular - and I emphasize popular - athletic events to sell their commerical products:

"The first person to call in with the name of the singer who sung the song we played at 10:03 am this morning will receive two free tickets to Saturday nights big game against Smithville U."

"Come in and test drive a Plymouth and get two free tickets to Monday's basketball game."

Coopting the attention of commercial advertisers and, through them, the newsroom, requires commercial viability in an economic sense. Attracting the support of commercial sponsors and establishing the commerical viability of a program requires the existence of a quality product.

Here is where the credibility of women's athletics becomes a crucial element in playing the media game. The mere existence of a sport program does not make it commerically viable. The program has to have value. While women have worked hard to expand the existence of women's programs, we have not been as successful in developing the quality, and in turn, the commerical viability of those programs. In fact, women's athletics in the educational setting has been notoriously resistent to developing sport as a commercial product. We have adopted a self-righteous attitude that says, "Commercialism is bad and does not belong in education." We desperately need to rethink that position.

The public has a right to demand excellence of its educational institutions, as demonstrated by the national ranking of their law school or football team. Whenever the educational institution produces such excellence, there is nothing wrong with a public demand to consume that educational product -- be it athletics contests or superconducting materials or government contracts for the intellectual expertise of the University's faculty. There is nothing wrong with the commercialization of sport or academia as long as the public or commercial interests do not dictate or limit the university's search for truth. Presidents and academic deans walk the same tightrope with major donors and contractors in the arts and sciences, and struggle with federal intervention as athletics directors and coaches walk with those alumni interested in athletics. What is important is for higher education leaders and the public to be mindful regarding what is the tail and what is the dog.

There is nothing wrong with the commercialization of sport or academia as long as exploitation of

excellence does not involve exploitation of human beings -- and student-athletes were human beings at last count. Somehow we have equated the commerical exploitation of sport with the commercial exploitation of students because of our sad experiences with some poorly conducted men's athletics programs. What about Joe Paterno's football program with a 90% graduation rate or Duke's basketball program with similar numbers...or Jody Conradt's women's basketball program at Texas which draws an average of 8,400 people a game, has every home game televised, earns $600,000 a year and more than pays for itself while boasting of that same 90% graduation rate and tremendous local and national media coverage -- to say nothing of the tremendous respect the University of Texas faculty has for Jody Conradt as an educator of young people.

It is time for those of us in women's athletics to come to grips with realization that we exist in a capitalist society which places high value on commerically viable products. There is nothing wrong with the commercialization of sport or academia as long as exploitation or protection of the means of revenue-production does not come at the expense of higher education's larger responsibility, which is to lead society by espousing higher order values central to the maintenance of ethical behavior -- to lead by creating a society within the university which is, by its example, a measure of human integrity. This larger responsibility can and must be compatible with commercialization.

Women's sports have not as yet established this requisite credibility. When we do, you will see women's sports on TV and read about them on the front page of the sports section. In addition to a mindset against selling a quality sport product, there are other more tangible reasons why women's sports have failed to establish their credibility with the media and the public:

- Inadequate funding -- we need to get back into Title IX complaints;
- We haven't used existing funds on the critical elements of a successful program: coaches who are master teachers, scholarships and quality competitive schedules;
- We have not taken a logical developmental approach to producing quality -- designating one sport at a time for concentrated effort, then moving on to another sport once quality has been achieved. Rather we have been guilty of shot-gunning the development of women's sports -- producing "jacks of all trades, masters of none" programs. Note that I am not suggesting that we follow in the footsteps of men's athletics which has put all of their eggs into one or two baskets, namely football or basketball. They are at fault because they stopped after developing one or two quality programs and have neglected the other members of their family;
- We have ignored the need for designating staff members who give priority to the publicity and promotion of our quality programs. Somehow we are operating under the assumption that educators are not supposed to be salespeople. Nonsense. Educators are in the business of selling -- motivating

young people to buy this thing called intellectual curiosity and the pursuit of excellence in academic and performing art activities. We are good at selling. The nature of the economic beast of higher education is who better sells their program so they end up getting more of the University budget pie or more grants. Higher education is a commercial animal and salespeople are at the top of the heap. Who holds endowed chairs? The people who sell the most books and get the biggest grants so they can win the Nobel prize which is nothing more than cash for quality. We need to recognize the name of the game.

- In the name of equal treatment of all of our children, we have not been selective in the programs we have tried to promote. When we promote poor quality programs, the public comes, is not impressed with what they see and then they don't come back, even when the product improves.
- When we have a quality product, a good team, we have promoted it to the public without considering the finer points of presentation to which the public has become accustomed: comfortable facilities, concessions, cheerleaders, band, a public address announcer, etc. You can tell whether a sport event is worth the price of a ticket by the "trappings" of the event as well as the contest itself. The public has been trained to know what looks like a quality sports event and what doesn't. Their definition requires much more than a good contest between skilled players.

In short (or rather, in long), establishing the credibility of the women's athletics product with at least one sport to begin with, is critical to commericial and media success. Once you have a credible product -- and there are many of us who do have that product right now or are close to having it --we must learn to play the game of commerce.

I've always said that the cheapest way to promote your program is to get free advertising in the print and electronic media. That's what news coverage of sporting events really is. There are a number of very simple avenues which can be explored to gain media attention. Getting mothers, fathers and fans who are media consumers to write letters to the editor deploring coverage of the quality women's program. Figure out who we know. Who owns the paper or station? Do we have any political or family connections. When a member of the Board of Trustees has a daughter on your basketball team and a business partner who is the owner of a radio station, good things can happen very quickly. Take reporters out to lunch. Allow reporters use of university recreational facilities. Understand how the newsroom operates in a practical sense so that you know enough to ask for a beat writer instead of a feature story.

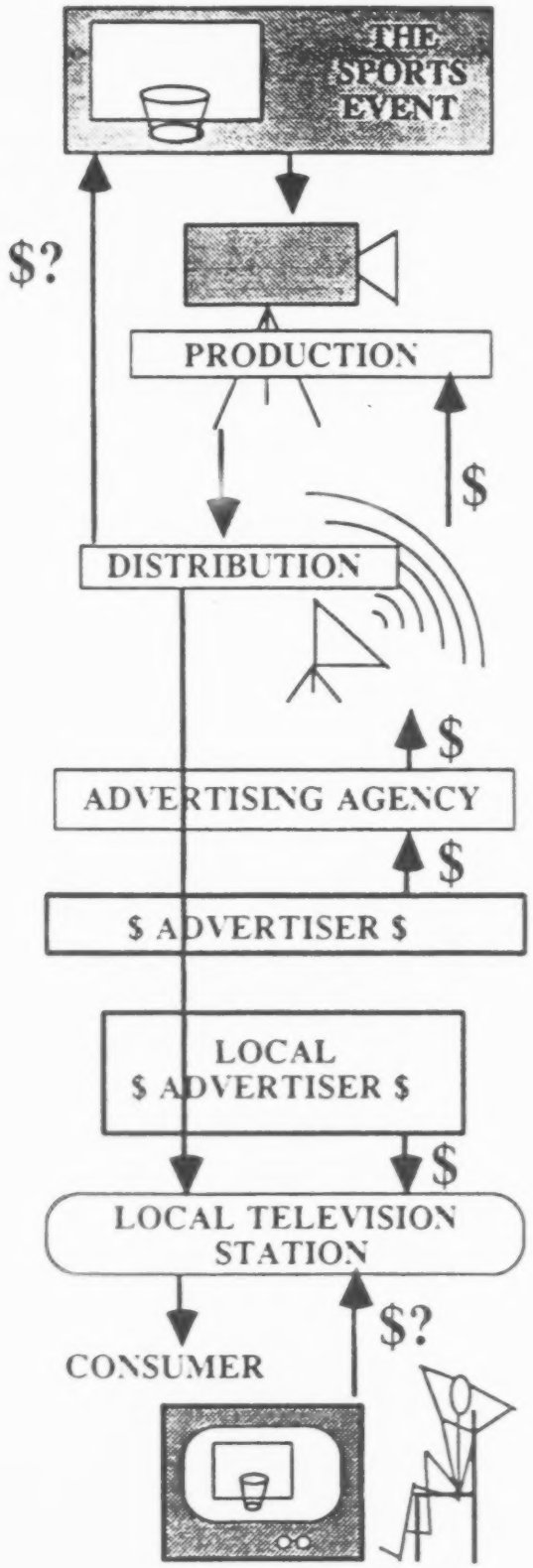
If the media won't cover a women's athletics event in its own right and the political connections aren't there, a commercial relationship must be established so that the economic and political power of the commerical entity can be brought to bear on the media establishment. If McDonald's spends

$5,000 a week advertising in a local newspaper or on radio or television, that newspaper or radio or television station will be careful not to step on the feet of Ronald McDonald. A good example of such a connection is the development of a title sponsor opportunity for the benefit of a McDonald's charity like Ronald McDonald House which provides room and board for parents with terminally ill children while they are being treated in a hospital setting. The basketball team adopts the kids at Ronald McDonald house which is the subject of a Life & Style section feature in the local newspaper. 5,000 game tickets are sold in Ronald McDonald stores, the proceeds to benefit Ronald McDonald House. Because McDonalds wants people in their stores to buy food, they use newspaper, radio and television advertisements to promote people supporting the charity by purchasing tickets at any McDonald's -- with a free coke if you bring the coupon contained in the advertisement. Ronald McDonald himself and that other funny looking hamburger character appear at the game with other celebrities obtained by McDonald's. McDonald's promotes the event as a "big deal" and the newspapers treat it as such. Five thousand spectators attend and the print and electronic media coverage is great. With or without McDonald's, the basketball game is the same. With McDonald's, the event is worthy of coverage.

The way radio and television works is also a well-kept secret. We need to understand those businesses if we want to control them. Let's take a look at the structure and economics of television to see find the Achilles Heel that can be exploited. (see figures A and B)

FIGURE A

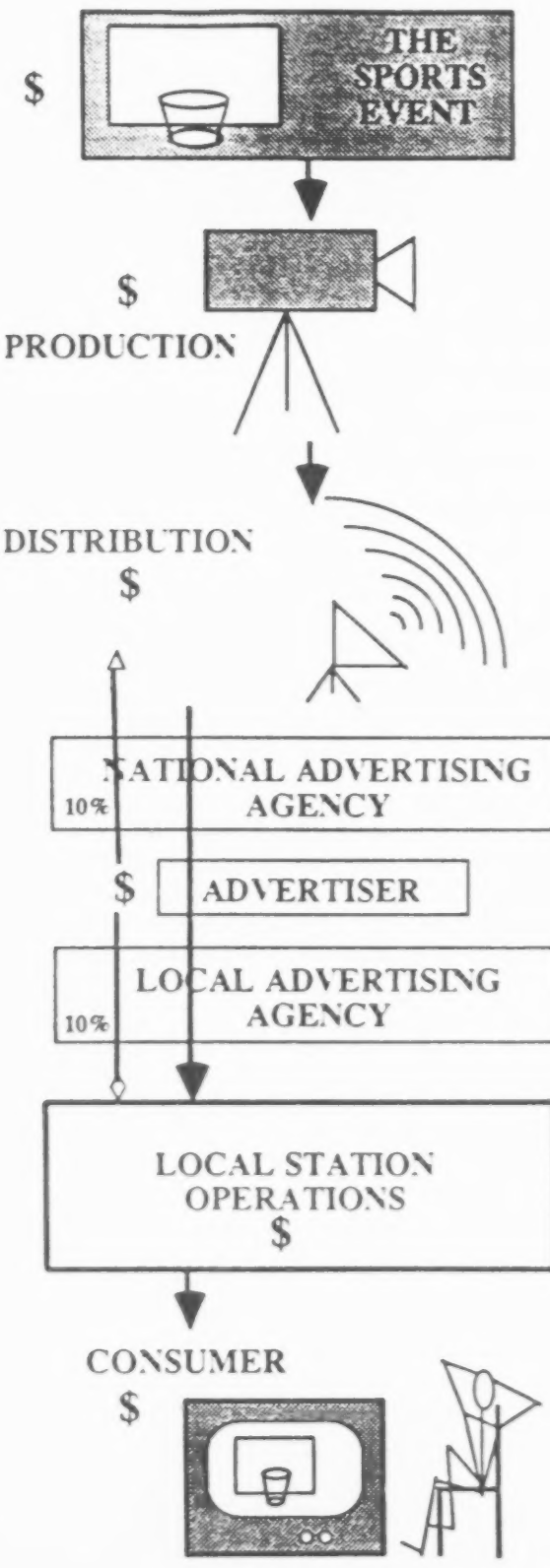
THE BASIC OPERATING STRUCTURE OF TELEVISION



- Institution owns the sports event property & sells TV rights to production company (or syndicator or distributing network who arranges for production) or gives it away in trade for production cost and distribution
- Production company comes to sports event site to broadcast (for live telecasts) or record (for delayed showing) the event
- An over-the-air network (national =CBS, NBC, etc. or local) or cable operator (national =ESPN or regional= HSE or local) broadcasts or cablecasts the sports event
- An advertising agency (optional) sells television advertising spots (valued from $40/30 sec. for local delayed cablecast to $350,000/30sec. for major sport extravaganzas on major networks)
- Company that wants consumer to know about its product buys advertising time
- Local station or cable operator has a limited number of advertising spots to sell to local advertisers
- Local station or cable operator buys programming from distributor -- sometimes over-the-air major networks (i.e., CBS, NBC, etc.) pay affiliates to carry particular programming
- Consumer receives programming for free (in case of over-the-air broadcasts) or pays a fee for cable programs

FIGURE B

THE BASIC ECONOMICS OF TELEVISION
(example: basketball game)



If the game is of value, a distributor or syndicator (middleman producer) may provide event property owner with a rights fee. Or, the event property right made be traded (no cash transaction) in return for production and telecast at no cost to event owner.

LOCAL	REGIONAL	NATIONAL
3/4" tape	1" tape	1"-2" tape
0-$1,400	$6,000-$13,000	$20,000-$50,000

COST OF PRODUCING GAME
May be paid by event owner, syndicator/producer or distributor, any of whom may sell advertising to pay such costs.

Overhead of operating the distributing station and obtaining programs varies but must be covered by advertising income and/or fees from local operators in return for provision of programming.

If distributor does not have its own sales force, advertising agency sells advertising for distributor and keeps 10%

24 30 sec. spots per avg. reg. season game
cost per spot (cable)

LOCAL	REGIONAL	NATIONAL
$0-$150	$250-$500	$870-$2,000

If local distributor does not have its own sales force, local advertising agency sells advertising for distributor and keeps 10%

Overhead of operating the local distributing station and obtaining programs varies but must be covered by advertising income (local operator is given spots to sell by distributor), fee from distributor (from majorbroadcast networks to affiliates) and/or fees from consumer (basic or pay cable) in return for provision of programming.

Consumer may pay directly for program in form of basic cable or additional subscription fee. Consumer pays indirectly by purchasing goods of advertiser. Advertiser is willing to subsidize athletic event if size of audience (ratings) and demographics of audience (type of purchaser and power of purchaser) match its product.

Now that we know how television works (radio is almost identical), we need to take a careful look at the barriers to marketing the women's sports product on television:

- We currently have no ratings/demographics of the television viewing or game spectating audience for women's collegiate sports. Such data is essential to obtaining corporate sponsorship or advertising dollars.
- Advertisers and advertising agencies perceive women's sports as a women's consumer audience buy. This perception of a women's audience limits advertiser interest because they can reach the female consumer more easily and more cheaply with daytime programming buys (soaps, etc.). An advertiser can buy a 30 second spot on a soap for the cost of $5-8 per thousand households. A 30 second spot on a sports event costs $16-40 per thousand household. There's only one thing wrong. Close to two-thirds of the women's sports spectating audience appears to be male and there is reason to suspect that women's sports has an upscale sports audience similar to men's golf or tennis. Let's take a look at some demographic data we've developed on our women's basketball program at Texas (see Figure C).

FIGURE C

LADY LONGHORN AUDIENCE DEMOGRAPHICS

THE AUDIENCE

Male/Female Ratio	
Male	61.7%
Female	38.3%
Audience Age	
18-34	34.8%
35-49	40.7%
50 and over	24.5%
Audience Race	
White	93.0%
Non-White	7.0%
Audience Income	
Less than $30,000	29.2%
$30,001-$75,000	52.8%
More than $75,000	18.0%
Audience Marital Status	
Married	53.5%
Never Married	30.7%
Divorced, Separated or Widowed	15.8%
Education Level	
High School Graduate and/or Technical School	11.8%
Some College	26.2%
College Graduate	23.9%
Attended Graduate School	38.1%
Occupation	
White Collar-Management	32.5%
Professional-Educator	25.2%
Blue Collar-Technical	10.5%
Other	31.8%

HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION

Number of Persons in Household	
One	21.1%
Two	45.4%
Three	16.1%
Four or more	17.1%
Type of Housing	
House	73.2%
Multi-Unit Housing	22.8%
Other	4.0%

MEDIA HABITS

Audience Television Viewing	
0-1 hour	20.8%
1-2 hours	31.8%
2-3 hours	12.0%
5 or more hours	6.6%
Audience who reads Austin American-Statesman	
Never	6.4%
Seldom	13.4%
Regularly	80.2%

- There is apparently no demand for the women's sport product on the part of television syndicators such as Raycom, Jefferson Pilot, Creative Sports, etc. No one is working the marketplace on behalf of women's sports.
- Women's sports has not organized to the point where it can put anyone into the marketplace on behalf of the property-rights owners. A group of institutions need to chip in and hire someone to work the market on their behalf.
- There is a glut of men's sports product, especially men's college basketball product, on the market which is driving down advertising rates (see Figure D)

MEN'S BASKETBALL PRODUCT GLUT

Distributor	84-85	85-86	86-87	87-88	88-89
			# games telecast		
CBS/NBC	68	69	64	64	75
ESPN/USA	110	114	153	???	200
Other Cable/ independents					100
Total					375

RATINGS ON CBS/NBC: 1981 = 6.5
1986 = 4.6

(rating of 1.0 = approximately 900,000 households)

- The men's sport product is currently occupying the most desirable programming slots on the national cable networks and most of the desirable programming slots on many of the regional sports cable networks.
- Advertisers and the advertising agencies representing them have a mental set that if they want a "sports buy", they want a "men's sport buy". Only women's golf and tennis have achieved legitimate sports buy status because of their very upscale demographics.
- The advertising sales force is uneducated. There is no belief in the value or quality of the women's sports product. These are the people who are making the majority of the advertising buys. The advertising agency decides what to buy.
- Advertisers appear to be putting proportionally less dollars into sports television. They are targeting cheaper, more local advertising buys.

If we understand these forces we can design strategies which directly target the problem. If we're smart, we will target the need to create advertiser demand? We need to prove that women's sports has attractive demographics:

-upscale female viewers not reached by soaps

-upscale male viewers who are more upscale than men's sports viewers

-attract greater numbers of upscale female viewers than any other alternative

(upscale = $50,000 annual income in 25-54 age bracket)

We can create consumer demand via letter writing to local, regional and national distributors and working on identifying and deploying our personal connections.

We can show our advertisers that our women's sport audience buys their product through the production of data on product purchasing habits. (see Figures E & F)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ATTENDANCE AND VIEWERSHIP OF SPORTS BY WOMEN, 1987

While women make up a significant portion of the people who attend live sporting events, they are in the minority of those watching sports on television.

Attendance Sport	Female Attendees (in millions)	% of Attendees
Baseball	7.8	41.3
Pro Football	3.6	36.8
College Football	3.6	41.4
College Basketball	2.7	38.8
Pro Basketball	2.2	38.4
Horse Racing (Flats)	2.1	52.8
Auto Racing	1.8	37.1
Ice Hockey	1.7	43.0
Rodeo	1.7	48.2
Bowling	1.5	51.0
TOTAL	28.7	39.0

Viewership Sport	Women Viewers (in millions)	% of Total Viewership
Baseball	24.8	27.2
Pro Football	24.8	27.2
College Football	16.6	18.2
Pro Basketball	13.6	14.9
College Basketball	12.7	14.0
Bowling	11.5	12.6
Auto Racing	8.3	9.1
Horse Racing (Flats)	7.6	8.3
Rodeo	6.4	7.0
Ice Hockey	6.0	6.6
TOTAL	132.3	14.5

Note: Individuals count just once per sport in attendance figures.
Source: Simmons Market Research Bureau Inc.

BUYING POWER

The dollars (in millions) spent by women on sporting goods from January to June 1987, and from January to June 1986.

	1987 Dollars	% of Total	1986 Dollars	% of Total	% Change
Apparel	760	84	772	83	-2
Athletic Footwear	556	44	531	46	+5
Baseball/Softball	57	20	62	20	-8
Basketball	9	20	5	10	+80
Bicycles	207	34	222	41	-7
Camping/Outdoor Rec.	61	30	72	32	-15
Exercise	170	46	170	50	—
Football	—	—	—	—	—
Golf	38	16	29	13	+31
Racquetball	6	17	9	23	-31
Soccer	4	19	4	14	—
Tennis	46	38	49	42	-6
Water Sports/Rec.	45	30	64	28	-30
Total	1,959	42	1,989	42	-2

Source: Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association

DECISION MAKERS

According to Chilton Research Services' Purchase Influence study, women make the primary purchase decision in 28 product and service categories. Listed below are the categories along with the percentage of purchases—by product—that are made by women.

	Product Decision		Product Decision
Coffee	82.3	Audio Cassette Tape Recorder	49.8
Soft Drinks	81.3	Camera (other than 35mm/slr)	58.1
Juice/Fruit Drinks	67.0	TV - Color	47.8
Desserts	72.1	TV - Portable Black and White	57.4
Food	72.2	Video Games	55.7
Household Products	78.4	Clothes Washer/Dryer	57.9
Paper Products	74.1	Microwave Oven	50.9
Personal Care Products	55.4	Range/Stove	54.0
Pet Foods	72.4	Refrigerator	50.8
Snacks	62.4	Telephone	51.3
Vitamins	63.9	Home Furnishings	55.6
Cold Remedies	61.7	Personal Life Insurance	50.4
Photographic Film	51.4	Women's Wristwatches	58.4
Suntan/Sunscreen Products	66.8	Vacation Airline Tickets	51.6

FIGURE E

FIGURE F

AUDIENCE SPENDING HABITS

PURCHASING HABITS

Product/Service	
Restaurant Food	93.3%
Fast Food	92.2%
Toiletries/Grooming Aids	87.4%
Clothing or Shoes	77.3%
Entertainment	76.2%
Gasoline or Motor Oil	71.6%
Dry Cleaning or Laundry	70.5%
Alcoholic Beverages in a Restaurant	61.4%
Film and Photo Finishing	58.8%
Records and Tapes	52.2%
UT Campus Entertainment	52.0%
Beer in a Store	44.8%
Sports Equipment	43.8%
Wine in a Store	39.6%
Hard Liquor in a Store	30.6%

SHOPPING HABITS

Shopping Area	
Barton Creek Mall	67.7%
Highland Mall	66.0%
Northcross Mall	49.2%
Arboretum	41.7%
Hancock Shopping Center	41.1%
Westgate Mall	26.5%
Capital Plaza	25.1%

Austin Stores	
Foley's	75.1%
Dillard's	68.5%
Target	66.2%
Sears	55.7%
Bealls	50.1%
J.C. Penney	46.5%
Scarbroughs	41.8%
K-Mart	39.3%
Edison's	35.0%
Frost Brothers	32.2%
Mervyn's	31.7%
Montgomery Ward	28.9%
Best Products	27.9%

CREDIT CARD OWNERSHIP

Credit Cards	
Gasoline Companies	78.8%
Department Store	77.3%
Visa	73.2%
Mastercard	72.7%
American Express	48.5%

LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Leisure Activities	
Movies	80.9%
Traveling	69.8%
Petcare	57.6%
Swimming	57.0%
Gardening	50.9%
Photography	44.1%
Basketball	42.1%
Hiking	40.7%
Bicycling	40.5%
Jogging	40.3%
Camping	38.7%
Tennis	36.4%
Crafts	33.7%
Fishing	32.4%
Baseball	30.5%
Golf	29.4%
Boating	28.9%
Skating	28.0%
Bowling	27.9%
Water Skiing	26.8%
Sewing	25.5%

We can obtain our own advertisers, arrange and pay for our own production and clear our own stations by trading advertising inventory or air time because we know how the system works.

The real bottom line is that we have looked for the enemy and found that the enemy is us rather than the media. We are limited only by our aspirations -- which need to be high enough to compete with the men's sport product in the commercial marketplace of our capitalist society. Like many games that women were previously denied from playing, the guys developed the rules. We just need to learn them. I know we can become better players.

REFERENCES

Agee, W., Ault, P. & Emery, E. (1982). Introduction to mass communication. New York: Harper and Row.

Atwood, L. E., Sohn, A. B. and Sohn, H. (1978). A longitudinal analysis of local non-political agenda-setting effects. Journalism Quarterly, 55, 325-332.

Black, J. & Whitney, F. C. (1983). Introduction to mass communication. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown.

Funkhouser, G. R. (1975). The issues of the sixties: An exploratory study of the dynamics of public opinion. Public Opinion Quarterly, 37, 62-75.

Greendorfer, S. L. (1980) Sport and the mass media. Handbook of Social Science of Sport. Illinois: Stipes.

Hough, G. (1984). News writing. Boston: Houghton- Mifflin.

Klapper, J. T. (1960). The effects of mass communication. New York: The Free Press.

MacKuen, M. B. & Coombs, S. L. (1981). More than news media power in public affairs. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Ranney, A. (1983). Channels of power: The impact of television on American politics. New York: American Enterprise Institute and Basic Books.

Raywid, M. A. (1984). Education and the media, or why they keep raining on your parade. Contemporary Education, 55, 206-211.

Shaw, D. L. & McCombs, M. E. (Eds.). (1977). The emergence of American political issues: The agenda- setting function of the press. St. Paul: West.

Smith, K. A. (1985, August). Effects of media and context in determining community issue saliences and evaluations. Paper presented to the Communication Theory and Methodology Division of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Memphis, Tennessee.

Theberge, N. and A. Cronk. (1986?) Work routines in newspaper sports departments and the coverage of women's sports. A mimeographed copy of a paper submitted to the Sociology of Sport Journal.

Ullmann, H. J. (1984, Winter). Profession at risk. Educational Horizons, 41-47.

Wattenberg, B. J. (1984). The good news is the bad news is wrong. New York: Simon and Schuster.